

natural

| Version 4.1.2 for Mainframes | Programming Guide



This document applies to Natural Version 4.1.2 for Mainframes and to all subsequent releases.
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Programming Guide - Overview

This documentation applies to all platforms on which Natural can be used. It provides basic information on various aspects of programming with Natural. You should be familiar with this information before you start to write Natural applications. See als Natural for Mainframes - Tutorial. This tutorial contains a series of sessions which introduce you to some of the basics of Natural programming.

 Reporting Mode or Structured Mode Describes the differences between the two Natural programming modes. Generally, it is recommended to use structured mode exclusively, because it provides for more clearly structured applications. Therefore all explanations and examples in this documentation refer to structured mode. Any peculiarities of reporting mode will not be taken into consideration.

Defining Names and Fields

Describes how you define the fields you wish to use in a program.

 Accessing Data in an Adabas Database Describes various aspects of using Natural to access data in an Adabas database

On principle, the features and examples contained in this document also apply to other database management systems supported by Natural. Differences, if any, are described in the Natural Statements documentation or in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation.

Output of Data

Discusses various aspects of how you can control the format of an output report created with Natural, that is, the way in which the data are displayed.

Object Types

Within an application, you can use several types of programming objects to achieve an efficient application structure. This document discusses the various types of Natural programming objects, such as data areas, programs, subprograms, subroutines, helproutines, maps.

Further Programming Aspects Discusses various other aspects of programming with Natural.

Designing User Interfaces

Provides information on components of Natural which you can use to design the user interfaces of your applications.

Keywords and Reserved Words This document contains a list of all keywords and words that are reserved in the Natural programming language.

NaturalX

Describes how to develop and distribute NaturalX applications on

On mainframe and UNIX platforms, you can use NaturalX to apply a component-based programming style. However, on these platforms the components cannot be distributed and can only run in a local Natural session. Therefore, only the section Developing NaturalX Applications is

relevant.

Windows platforms.

Example Programs

This documentation contains several examples of Natural programs, as well as references to further example programs not shown in the documentation.

All these programs are also provided in source-code form in the Natural library "SYSEXPG". (The programs are all written in structured mode.)

Further example programs of using Natural statements are provided in the Natural library "SYSEXRM".

Please ask your Natural administrator about the availability of these libraries at your site.

The example programs use data from the files "EMPLOYEES" and "VEHICLES", which are supplied by Software AG for demonstration purposes.

Reporting Mode or Structured Mode

The following topics are covered below:

- General Information
- Setting the Programming Mode
- Functional Differences
- Closing a Processing Loop in Reporting Mode
- Closing a Processing Loop in Structured Mode
- Database Reference

General Information

Natural offers two ways of programming:

- · reporting mode
- structured mode

Generally, it is recommended to use structured mode exclusively, because it provides for more clearly structured applications.

Reporting Mode

Reporting mode is only useful for the creation of adhoc reports and small programs which do not involve complex data and/or programming constructs. (If you decide to write a program in reporting mode, be aware that small programs may easily become larger and more complex.)

Structured Mode

Structured mode is intended for the implementation of complex applications with a clear and well-defined program structure. The major benefits of structured mode are:

- The programs have to be written in a more structured way and are therefore easier to read and consequently easier to maintain.
- As all fields to be used in a program have to be defined in one central location (instead of being scattered all over the program, as is possible in reporting mode), overall control of the data used is much easier.

With structured mode, you also have to make more detail planning before the actual programs can be coded, thereby avoiding many programming errors and inefficiencies.

Setting the Programming Mode

The default programming mode is set by the Natural administrator. You can change the mode by using the system command GLOBALS and the session parameter SM:

GLOBALS SM=ON	Structured Mode
GLOBALS SM=OFF	Reporting Mode

Functional Differences

The major functional differences between reporting mode and structured mode are summarized below:

- The syntax related to closing loops and functional blocks differs in the two modes. In structured mode, every loop or logical construct must be explicitly closed with a corresponding END-... statement. Thus, it becomes immediately clear, which loop/logical constructs ends where. Reporting mode uses (CLOSE) LOOP and DO ... DOEND statements for this purpose. END-... statements (except END-DEFINE, END-DECIDE and END-SUBROUTINE) cannot be used in reporting mode, while LOOP and DO/DOEND statements cannot be used in structured mode.
- In reporting mode, you can use database fields without having to define them in a DEFINE DATA statement; also, you can define user-defined variables anywhere in a program, which means that they can be scattered all over the program.

 In structured mode, *all* data elements to be used have to be defined in one central location (either in the DEFINE DATA statement at the beginning of the program, or in a data area outside the program).

The Natural Statements documentation provides separate syntax diagrams for each mode-sensitive statement.

The two examples below illustrate the differences between the two modes in constructing processing loops and logical conditions.

Reporting Mode Example:

The reporting mode example uses the statements DO and DOEND to mark the beginning and end of the statement block that is based on the AT END OF DATA condition. The END statement closes all active processing loops.

```
READ EMPLOYEES BY PERSONNEL-ID
DISPLAY NAME BIRTH POSITION
AT END OF DATA
DO
SKIP 2
WRITE / 'LAST SELECTED:' OLD(NAME)
DOEND
END
```

Structured Mode Example:

The structured mode example uses an END-ENDDATA statement to close the AT END OF DATA condition, and an END-READ statement to close the READ loop. The result is a more clearly structured program in which you can see immediately where each construct begins and ends:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 POSITION

END-DEFINE

READ MYVIEW BY PERSONNEL-ID

DISPLAY NAME BIRTH POSITION

AT END OF DATA

SKIP 2

WRITE / 'LAST SELECTED:' OLD(NAME)

END-ENDDATA

END-READ
```

Closing a Processing Loop in Reporting Mode

The statements END, LOOP (or CLOSE LOOP) or SORT may be used to close a processing loop.

The LOOP statement can be used to close more than one loop, and the END statement can be used to close all active loops. These possibilities of closing several loops with a single statement constitute a basic difference to structured mode.

A SORT statement closes all processing loops and initiates another processing loop.

Example 1 - LOOP:

```
FIND ...

FIND ...

...

LOOP (closes inner FIND loop)

LOOP (closes outer FIND loop)

...
```

Example 2 - END:

```
FIND ...
    FIND ...
    ...
    END (closes all loops and ends processing)
```

Example 3 - SORT:

```
FIND ...
    FIND ...
    ...
SORT ... (closes all loops, initiates loop)
...
END (closes SORT loop and ends processing)
```

Closing a Processing Loop in Structured Mode

Structured mode uses a specific loop-closing statement for each processing loop. Also, the END statement does not close any processing loop. The SORT statement must be preceded by an END-ALL statement, and the SORT loop must be closed with an END-SORT statement.

Example 1 - FIND:

```
FIND ...
   FIND ...
   ...
   ...
   END-FIND (closes inner FIND loop)
END-FIND (closes outer FIND loop)
...
```

Example 2 - READ:

```
READ ...
AT END OF DATA
...
END-ENDDATA
...
END-READ (closes READ loop)
...
END
```

Example 3 - SORT:

```
READ ...

FIND ...

...

END-ALL (closes all loops)

SORT (opens loop)

...

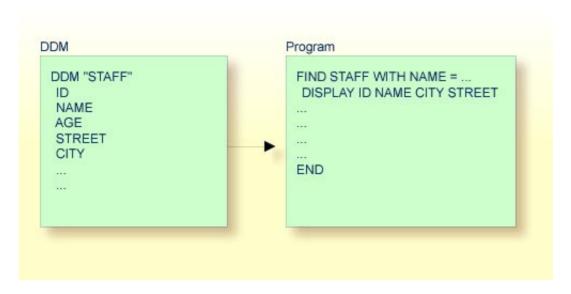
END-SORT (closes SORT loop)

END
```

Database Reference

In reporting mode, database fields and DDMs may be referenced without having been defined in a data area.

Reporting Mode:



In structured mode, however, each database field to be used must be specified in a DEFINE DATA statement (as described in Defining Fields and Database Access).

Structured Mode:



Defining Names and Fields

This document describes how you define the fields you wish to use in a program. These fields can be database fields and user-defined fields.

It contains information that applies to all fields in general and to user-defined fields in particular.

The following topics are covered:

- Use and Structure of DEFINE DATA Statement
- User-Defined Variables
- User-Defined Constants
- Initial Values and the RESET Statement
- Redefining Fields
- Arrays

8

• Data Blocks

Please note that only the major options of the DEFINE DATA statement are discussed here. Further options are described in the Natural Statements documentation.

The particulars of database fields are described in Database Access.

Use and Structure of DEFINE DATA Statement

The first statement in a Natural program must always be a DEFINE DATA statement which is used to define fields for use in a program.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of DEFINE DATA Statement
- Defining Fields within a DEFINE DATA Statement
- Defining Fields in a Separate Data Area
- Structuring a DEFINE DATA Statement Using Level Numbers

Use of DEFINE DATA Statement

In the DEFINE DATA statement, you define all the fields - database fields as well as user-defined variables - that are to be used in the program.

All fields to be used **must be** defined in the DEFINE DATA statement.

There are two ways to define the fields:

- The fields can be defined within the DEFINE DATA statement itself.
- The fields can be defined outside the program in a local or global data area, with the DEFINE DATA statement referencing that data area.

If fields are used by multiple programs/routines, they should be defined in a data area outside the programs.

For a clear application structure, it is usually better to define fields in data areas outside the programs.

Data areas are created and maintained with the data area editor, which is described in your Natural Editor documentation.

In the first example below, the fields are defined within the DEFINE DATA statement of the program. In the second example, the same fields are defined in a local data area (LDA), and the DEFINE DATA statement only contains a reference to that data area.

Defining Fields within a DEFINE DATA Statement

The following example illustrates how fields can be defined within the DEFINE DATA statement itself:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 PERSONNEL-ID

1 #VARI-A (A20)

1 #VARI-B (N3.2)

1 #VARI-C (I4)

END-DEFINE
```

Defining Fields in a Separate Data Area

The following example illustrates how fields can be defined in a Local Data Area (LDA):

Program:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
USING LDA39
END-DEFINE
```

Local Data Area "LDA39":

I T L	Name	F	Leng	Index/Init/EM/Name/Comment
V 1	VIEWEMP			EMPLOYEES
2	NAME	Α	20	
2	FIRST-NAME	Α	20	
2	PERSONNEL-ID	Α	8	
1	#VARI-A	Α	20	
1	#VARI-B	N	3.2	
1	#VARI-C	I	4	

Structuring a DEFINE DATA Statement Using Level Numbers

The following topics are covered:

- Structuring and Grouping Your Definitions
- Level Numbers in View Definitions
- Level Numbers in Field Groups
- Level Numbers in Redefinitions

Structuring and Grouping Your Definitions

Level numbers are used within the DEFINE DATA statement to indicate the structure and grouping of the definitions. This is relevant with:

- view definitions
- field groups
- redefinitions

Level numbers are 1- or 2-digit numbers in the range from 01 to 99 (the leading "0" is optional).

Generally, variable definitions are on Level 1.

The level numbering in view definitions, redefinitions and groups must be sequential; no level numbers may be skipped.

Level Numbers in View Definitions

If you define a view, the specification of the view name must be on Level 1, and the fields the view is comprised of must be on Level 2. (For details on view definitions, see Database Access.)

Example of Level Numbers in View Definition

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 BIRTH
...
END-DEFINE
```

Level Numbers in Field Groups

The definition of groups provides a convenient way of referencing a series of consecutive fields. If you define several fields under a common group name, you can reference the fields later in the program by specifying only the group name instead of the names of the individual fields.

The group name must be specified on Level 1, and the fields contained in the group must be one level lower.

For group names, the same naming conventions apply as for user-defined variables.

Example of Level Numbers in Group

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELDA (N2.2)

1 #FIELDB (I4)

1 #GROUPA

2 #FIELDC (A20)

2 #FIELDD (A10)

2 #FIELDE (N3.2)

1 #FIELDF (A2)

...

END-DEFINE
```

In this example, the fields #FIELDC, #FIELDD and #FIELDE are defined under the common group name #GROUPA. The other three fields are not part of the group. Note that #GROUPA only serves as a group name and is not a field in its own right (and therefore does not have a format/length definition).

Level Numbers in Redefinitions

If you redefine a field, the REDEFINE option must be on the same level as the original field, and the fields resulting from the redefinition must be one level lower. For details on redefinitions, see Redefining Fields.

Example of Level Numbers in Redefinition

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF STAFFDDM

2 BIRTH

2 REDEFINE BIRTH

3 #YEAR-OF-BIRTH (N4)

3 #MONTH-OF-BIRTH (N2)

3 #DAY-OF-BIRTH (N2)

1 #FIELDA (A20)

1 REDEFINE #FIELDA

2 #SUBFIELD1 (N5)
```

```
2 #SUBFIELD2 (A10)
2 #SUBFIELD3 (N5)
...
END-DEFINE
```

In this example, the database field BIRTH is redefined as three user-defined variables, and the user-defined variable #FIELDA is redefined as three other user-defined variables.

User-Defined Variables User-Defined Variables

User-Defined Variables

User-defined variables are fields which you define yourself in a program. They are used to store values or intermediate results obtained at some point in program processing for additional processing or display.

The following topics are covered:

- Defining User-Defined Variables
- Names of User-Defined Variables
- Format and Length of User-Defined Variables

Defining User-Defined Variables

You define a user-defined variable by specifying its name and its format/length in the DEFINE DATA statement.

Example:

In this example, a user-defined variable of alphanumeric format and a length of 10 positions is defined with the name #FIELD1.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #FIELD1 (A10)
...
END-DEFINE
```

Names of User-Defined Variables

When working with user-defined variables, the following naming conventions must be met.

Length of Variable Names

The name of a user-defined variable may be 1 to 32 characters long.

You can use variable names of over 32 characters (for example, in complex applications where longer meaningful variable names enhance the readability of programs); however, only the first 32 characters are significant and must therefore be unique, the remaining characters will be ignored by Natural.

Limitations of Variable Names

The name of a user-defined variable must not be a Natural reserved word.

Within one Natural program, you must not use the same name for a user-defined variable and a database field, because this might lead to referencing errors (see Qualifying Data Structures).

Characters Allowed in Variable Names

The name of a user-defined variable can consist of the following characters:

Character	Explanation
A - Z	alphabetical characters (upper and lower case)
0 - 9	numeric characters
-	hyphen
@	at sign
_	underline
/	slash
\$	dollar sign
§	paragraph sign
&	ampersand
#	hash/number sign
+	plus sign (only allowed as first character)

First Character of Variable Names

The first character of the name must be one of the following:

- an upper-case alphabetical character
- #
- +
- &

If the first character is a "#", "+" or "&", the name must consist of at least one additional character.

Variables in a GDA with a "+" as first character must be defined on Level 01. Other levels are only used in a redefinition.

"+" as the first character of a name is only allowed for application-independent variables (AIVs) and variables in a global data area. Names of AIVs must begin with a "+".

"&" as the first character of a name is used in conjunction with dynamic source program modification (see the RUN statement in the Natural Statements documentation), and as a dynamically replaceable character when defining processing rules (see the map editor description in your Natural Editors documentation).

Special Considerations Regarding the Case of Characters in Variable Names

On Windows and UNIX, lower-case characters entered as part of a variable name are internally converted to upper case. The same happens on mainframe computers if the LOWSRCE option of the COMPOPT system command is set to ON.

Lower-case characters can only be entered as the second and subsequent characters of a variable name.

On mainframe computers, lower-case characters are not translated to upper case and are therefore interpreted as being different from the respective upper-case characters, if

- the LOWSRCE option of the COMPOPT system command is set to OFF (the default value) and
- input in the editor is not translated to upper case (translation to upper case in the editor is controlled by editor profile options and by options depending on the operating system).

For example, this will cause the names #FIELD and #field to be interpreted as two different field names.

Note:

For compatibility reasons, you should not use this feature if you plan to port applications developed on mainframe computers to Windows or UNIX.

If you use lower-case characters as part of the variable name, it is highly recommended that variable names are unique regardless of their case.

Format and Length of User-Defined Variables

Format and length of a user-defined variable are specified in parentheses after the variable name.

A user-defined variable can have one of the following formats and corresponding lengths:

Fo	ormat	Definable Length	Internal Length (in Bytes)	
A	Alphanumeric	1 - 1073741824 (1GB)	1 - 1073741824	
В	Binary	1 - 1073741824 (1GB)	1 - 1073741824	
C	Attribute Control	-	2	
D	Date	-	4	
F	Floating Point	4 or 8	4 or 8	
I	Integer	1, 2 or 4	1, 2 or 4	
L	Logical	-	1	
N	Numeric (unpacked)	1 - 29	1 - 29	
P	Packed numeric	1 - 29	1 - 15	
Т	Time	-	7	

Further information is provided in User-defined Variables in the Natural Statements documentation.

Examples of User-Defined Variables

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL $/*\ 7$ positions before and 2 after decimal point. /* and 1 sign position. ... END-DEFINE
```

Note:

When a user-defined variable of format P is output with a DISPLAY, WRITE, or INPUT statement, Natural internally converts the format to N for the output.

User-Defined Constants User-Defined Constants

User-Defined Constants

Constants can be used throughout Natural programs. This document discusses the types of constants that are supported and how they are used.

The following topics are covered:

- Numeric Constants
- Alphanumeric Constants
- Date and Time Constants
- Hexadecimal Constants
- Logical Constants
- Floating Point Constants
- Attribute Constants
- Defining Named Constants

Numeric Constants

A numeric constant may contain 1 to 29 numeric digits.

A numeric constant used with a COMPUTE, MOVE, or arithmetic statement may contain a decimal point and sign notation.

Examples:

```
MOVE 3 TO #XYZ
COMPUTE #PRICE = 23.34
COMPUTE #XYZ = -103
COMPUTE #A = #B * 6074
```

Alphanumeric Constants

An alphanumeric constant may contain 1 to 253 alphanumeric characters.

An alphanumeric constant must be enclosed in either apostrophes (') or quotation marks (").

Examples:

```
MOVE 'ABC' TO #XYZ
MOVE '% INCREASE' TO #TITLE
DISPLAY "LAST-NAME" NAME
```

If you want an apostrophe to be part of an alphanumeric constant that is enclosed in apostrophes, you must write this as two apostrophes or as a single quotation mark.

If you want an apostrophe to be part of an alphanumeric constant that is enclosed in quotation marks, you write this as a single apostrophe.

Example:

If you want the following to be output:

User-Defined Constants Date and Time Constants

```
HE SAID, 'HELLO'
```

you can use any of the following notations:

```
WRITE 'HE SAID, ''HELLO'''
WRITE 'HE SAID, "HELLO"'
WRITE "HE SAID, ""HELLO"""
WRITE "HE SAID, 'HELLO'"
```

An alphanumeric constant that is used to assign a value to a user-defined variable must not be split between statement lines.

Alphanumeric constants may be concatenated to form a single value by use of a hyphen.

Examples:

```
MOVE 'XXXXXX' -
'YYYYYYY' TO #FIELD

MOVE "ABC" - 'DEF' TO #FIELD
```

In this way, alphanumeric constants can also be concatenated with hexadecimal constants.

Date and Time Constants

A date constant may be used in conjunction with a format D variable. Date constants may have the following formats:

D' yyyy-mm-dd'	International date format
D' dd.mm.yyyy'	German date format
D'dd/mm/yyyy'	European date format
D'mm/dd/yyyy'	USA date format

where dd represent the number of the day, mm the number of the month and yyyy the year.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE (D)
END-DEFINE
...
MOVE D'1997-08-11' TO #DATE
...
```

The default date format is controlled by the profile parameter DTFORM as set by the Natural administrator.

A time constant may be used in conjunction with a format T variable. A time constant has the following format:

```
T'hh:ii:ss'
```

where *hh* represents hours, *ii* minutes and *ss* seconds.

Example:

Hexadecimal Constants User-Defined Constants

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #TIME (T)
END-DEFINE
...
MOVE T'11:33:00' TO #TIME
```

Hexadecimal Constants

A hexadecimal constant may be used to enter a value which cannot be entered as a standard keyboard character.

A hexadecimal constant is prefixed with an "H". The constant itself must be enclosed in apostrophes and may consist of the hexadecimal characters 0 - 9, A - F. Two hexadecimal characters are required to represent one byte of data.

The hexadecimal representation of a character varies, depending on whether your computer uses an ASCII or EBCDIC character set. Wenn you transfer hexadecimal constants to another computer, you may therefore have to convert the characters.

ASCII Examples:

```
H'313233' (equivalent to the alphanumeric constant '123')
H'414243' (equivalent to the alphanumeric constant 'ABC')

EBCDIC Examples:

H'F1F2F3' (equivalent to the alphanumeric constant '123')
```

```
H'ClC2C3' (equivalent to the alphanumeric constant 'ABC')
```

Hexadecimal constants may be concatenated by using a hyphen between the constants.

ASCII Example:

```
H'414243' - H'444546' (equivalent to 'ABCDEF')

EBCDIC Example:

H'C1C2C3' - H'C4C5C6' (equivalent to 'ABCDEF')
```

Logical Constants

The logical constants "TRUE" and "FALSE" may be used to assign a logical value to a field defined with format L.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FLAG (L)
END-DEFINE
...
MOVE TRUE TO #FLAG
...
IF #FLAG ...
statement ...
MOVE FALSE TO #FLAG
END-IF
```

Floating Point Constants

Floating point constants can be used with variables defined with format F.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FLT1 (F4)
END-DEFINE
...
COMPUTE #FLT1 = -5.34E+2
```

Attribute Constants

Attribute constants can be used with variables defined with format C (control variables). This type of constant must be enclosed within parentheses.

The following attributes may be used:

AD=D	default	CD=BL	blue
AD=B	blinking	CD=GR	green
AD=I	intensified	CD=NE	neutral
AD=N	non-display	CD=PI	pink
AD=V	reverse video	CD=RE	red
AD=U	underlined	CD=TU	turquoise
AD=C	cursive/italic	CD=YE	yellow
AD=Y	dynamic attribute		
AD=P	protected		

See also session parameters AD and CD.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #ATTR (C)

1 #FIELD (A10)

END-DEFINE

...

MOVE (AD=I CD=BL) TO #ATTR

...

INPUT #FIELD (CV=#ATTR)
```

Defining Named Constants

If you need to use the same constant value several times in a program, you can reduce the maintenance effort by defining a named constant: you define a field in the DEFINE DATA statement, assign a constant value to it, and use the field name in the program instead of the constant value. Thus, when the value has to be changed, you only have to change it once in the DEFINE DATA statement and not everywhere in the program where it occurs.

You specify the constant value in angle brackets with the keyword "CONSTANT" after the field definition in the DEFINE DATA statement. If the value is alphanumeric, it must be enclosed in apostrophes.

Example:

20

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELDA (N3) CONSTANT <100>

1 #FIELDB (A5) CONSTANT <'ABCDE'>
END-DEFINE
```

During the execution of the program, the value of such a named constant cannot be modified.

Initial Values (and the RESET Statement)

The following topics are covered:

- Assigning Initial Values to a User-Defined Variable
- Default Initial Values
- RESET Statement

Assigning Initial Values to a User-Defined Variable

You can assign an initial value to a user-defined variable. You specify the initial value in angle brackets with the keyword "INIT" after the variable definition in the DEFINE DATA statement.

If the initial value is alphanumeric, it must be enclosed in apostrophes.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELDA (N3) INIT <100>

1 #FIELDB (A20) INIT <'ABC'>
END-DEFINE
```

The initial value for a field may also be the value of a Natural system variable.

Example of system variable *DATX as initial value:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #MYDATE (D) INIT <*DATX>
END-DEFINE
```

As initial value, a variable can also be filled, entirely or partially, with a specific single character or string of characters (only possible for alphanumeric variables).

With the option FULL LENGTH<*character(s)*> the entire field is filled with the specified *character(s)*.

With the option LENGTHn < character(s) > the first n positions of the field are filled with the specified character(s).

Example of FULL LENGTH:

In this example, the entire field will be filled with asterisks.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELD (A25) INIT FULL LENGTH <'*'>
END-DEFINE
...
```

Example of LENGTH *n*:

In this example, the first 4 positions of the field will be filled with exclamation marks.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #FIELD (A25) INIT LENGTH 4 <'!'>
END-DEFINE
```

Default Initial Values

If you specify no initial value for a field, the field will be initialized with a default initial value (null value) depending on its format:

Format	Default Initial Value
B, F, I, N, P	0
A	blank
L	F(ALSE)
D	D' '
Т	T'00:00:00'
С	(AD=D)

RESET Statement

The RESET statement is used to set the value of a field to a null value, or to a specific initial value.

- RESET (without INITIAL) sets the value of each specified field to a null value.
- RESET INITIAL sets each specified field to the initial value as defined for the field in the DEFINE DATA statement.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELDA (N3) INIT <100>

1 #FIELDB (A20) INIT <'ABC'>

1 #FIELDC (I4) INIT <5>

END-DEFINE

...

RESET #FIELDA /* resets field value to null

...

RESET INITIAL #FIELDA #FIELDB #FIELDC /* resets field values to initial values
...
```

Redefining Fields Redefining Fields

Redefining Fields

Redefinition is used to change the format of a field, or to divide a single field into segments.

The following topics are covered:

- Using the REDEFINE Option of DEFINE DATA
- Example Program Illustrating the Use of a Redefinition

Using the REDEFINE Option of DEFINE DATA

The REDEFINE option of the DEFINE DATA statement can be used to redefine a single field - either a user-defined variable or a database field - as one or more new fields. A group can also be redefined.

Important: Dynamic variables are not allowed.

The REDEFINE option redefines byte positions of a field from left to right, regardless of the format. Byte positions must match between original field and redefined field(s).

The redefinition must be specified immediately after the definition of the original field.

Example 1:

In the following example, the database field BIRTH is redefined as three new user-defined variables:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

01 EMPLOY-VIEW VIEW OF STAFFDDM

02 NAME

02 BIRTH

02 REDEFINE BIRTH

03 #BIRTH-YEAR (N4)

03 #BIRTH-MONTH (N2)

03 #BIRTH-DAY (N2)

END-DEFINE
```

Example 2:

In the following example, the group #VAR2, which consists of two user-defined variables of format N and P respectively, is redefined as a variable of format A:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
01 #VAR1 (A15)
01 #VAR2
02 #VAR2A (N4.1)
02 #VAR2B (P6.2)
01 REDEFINE #VAR2
02 #VAR2RD (A10)
END-DEFINE
```

With the notation FILLER nX you can define n filler bytes - that is, segments which are not to be used - in the field that is being redefined. (The definition of trailing filler bytes is optional.)

Example 3:

In the following example, the user-defined variable #FIELD is redefined as three new user-defined variables, each of format/length A2. The FILLER notations indicate that the 3rd and 4th and 7th to 10th bytes of the original field are not be used.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #FIELD (A12)

1 REDEFINE #FIELD

2 #RFIELD1 (A2)

2 FILLER 2X

2 #RFIELD2 (A2)

2 FILLER 4X

2 #RFIELD3 (A2)

END-DEFINE
```

Example Program Illustrating the Use of a Redefinition

The following program illustrates the use of a redefinition:

```
** Example Program 'DDATAX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
01 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  02 NAME
  02 FIRST-NAME
  02 SALARY (1:1)
01 #PAY
             (N9)
01 REDEFINE #PAY
   02 FILLER 3X
   02 #USD (N3)
   02 #000
           (N3)
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
 MOVE SALARY (1) TO #PAY
 DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME #PAY #USD #000
END-READ
END
```

Note how #PAY and the fields resulting from its definition are displayed:

Page	1				99-08-08	17:48:59
	NAME	FIRST-NAME	#PAY	#USD	#000	
JONES JONES JONES		VIRGINIA MARSHA ROBERT	46000 50000 31000	46 50 31	0 0 0	

Arrays Arrays

Arrays

Natural supports the processing of arrays.

The following topics are covered:

- Defining Arrays
- Initial Values for Arrays
- Assigning Initial Values to One-Dimensional Arrays
- Assigning Initial Values to Two-Dimensional Arrays
- A Three-Dimensional Array
- Arrays as Part of a Larger Data Structure
- Database Arrays
- Using Arithmetic Expressions in Index Notation
- Arithmetic Support for Arrays

Defining Arrays

Arrays are multi-dimensional tables, that is, two or more logically related elements identified under a single name. Arrays can consist of single data elements of multiple dimensions or hierarchical data structures which contain repetitive structures or individual elements. In Natural, an array can be one-, two- or three-dimensional. It can be an independent variable, part of a larger data structure or part of a database view.

To define an array variable, after the format and length you specify a slash followed by a so-called *index notation*, that is, the number of occurrences of the array.

Important:

Dynamic variables are not allowed.

For example, the following array has three occurrences, each occurrence being of format/length A10:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #ARRAY (A10/1:3)
END-DEFINE
...
```

To define a two-dimensional array, you specify an index notation for both dimensions:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #ARRAY (A10/1:3,1:4)
END-DEFINE
...
```

A two-dimensional array can be visualized as a table. The array defined in the example above would be a table that consists of 3 "rows" and 4 "columns":

Initial Values for Arrays Arrays

Initial Values for Arrays

To assign initial values to one or more occurrences of an array, you use an INIT specification, similar to that for "ordinary" variables.

Assigning Initial Values to One-Dimensional Arrays

The following examples illustrate how initial values are assigned to a one-dimensional array.

• To assign an initial value to one occurrence, you specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT (2) <'A'>
```

"A" is assigned to the second occurrence.

• To assign the same initial value to all occurrences, you specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT ALL <'A'>
```

"A" is assigned to every occurrence. Alternatively, you could specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT (*) <'A'>
```

• To assign the same initial value to a range of several occurrences, you specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT (2:3) <'A'>
```

"A" is assigned to the second to third occurrence.

• To assign a different initial value to every occurrence, you specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT <'A','B','C'>
```

"A" is assigned to the first occurrence, "B" to the second, and "C" to the third.

• To assign different initial values to some (but not all) occurrences, you specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT (1) <'A'> (3) <'C'>
```

"A" is assigned to the first occurrence, and "C" to the third; no value is assigned to the second occurrence.

Alternatively, you could specify:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT <'A',,'C'>
```

If fewer initial values are specified than there are occurrences, the last occurrences remain empty:

```
1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3) INIT <'A','B'>
```

"A" is assigned to the first occurrence, and "B" to the second; no value is assigned to the third occurrence.

Assigning Initial Values to Two-Dimensional Arrays

The following examples illustrate how initial values are assigned to a two-dimensional array.

For the examples, let us assume a two-dimensional array with three occurrences in the first dimension ("rows") and four occurrences in the second dimension ("columns"):

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4)

Vertical: First Dimension (1:3), Horizontal: Second Dimension (1:4):

(1,1)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(1,4)
(2,1)	(2,2)	(2,3)	(2,4)
(3,1)	(3,2)	(3,3)	(3,4)

The first set of examples illustrates how the *same* initial value is assigned to occurrences of a two-dimensional array; the second set of examples illustrates how *different* initial values are assigned.

In the examples, please note in particular the usage of the notations "*" and "V". Both notations refer to *all* occurrences of the dimension concerned: "*" indicates that all occurrences in that dimension are initialized with the *same* value, while "V" indicates that all occurrences in that dimension are initialized with *different* values.

- Assigning the Same Value
- Assigning Different Values

Assigning the Same Value

• To assign an initial value to one occurrence, you specify:

	A	

To assign the same initial value to one occurrence in the second dimension - in all occurrences of the first dimension - you specify:

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (*,3) <'A'>

A	
A	
A	

• To assign the same initial value to a range of occurrences in the first dimension - in all occurrences of the second dimension - you specify:

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (2:3,*) <'A'>

A	A	A	A
A	A	A	A

• To assign the same initial value to a range of occurrences in each dimension, you specify:

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (2:3,1:2) <'A'>

A	A	
A	A	

• To assign the same initial value to all occurrences (in both dimensions), you specify:

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT ALL <'A'>

A	A	A	A
A	A	A	A
A	A	A	A

Alternatively, you could specify:

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (*,*) <'A'>

Assigning Different Values

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,2) <'A','B','C'>

A	
В	
С	

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,2:3) <'A','B','C'>

A	A	
В	В	
С	С	

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,*) <'A','B','C'>

A	A	A	A
В	В	В	В
С	С	С	С

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,*) <'A',,'C'>

A	A	A	A
С	С	С	С

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,*) <'A','B'>

A	A	A	A
В	В	В	В

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (V,1) <'A','B','C'> (V,3) <'D','E','F'>

A	D	
В	Е	
С	F	

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (3,V) <'A','B','C','D'>

A	В	С	D

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (*,V) <'A','B','C','D'>

A	В	С	D
A	В	С	D
A	В	С	D

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (2,1) <'A'> (*,2) <'B'> (3,3) <'C'> (3,4) <'D'>

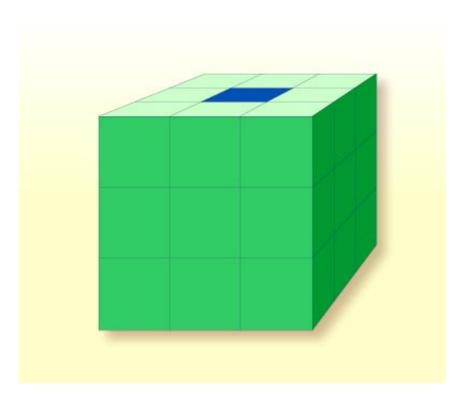
	В		
A	В		
	В	С	D

1 #ARRAY (A1/1:3,1:4) INIT (2,1) <'A'> (V,2) <'B',C',D'> (3,3) <'E'> (3,4) <'F'>

	В		
A	С		
	D	Е	F

A Three-Dimensional Array

A three-dimensional array could be visualized as follows:



The array illustrated here would be defined as follows (at the same time assigning an initial value to the highlighted field in row 1, column 2, plane 2):

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #ARRAY2

2 #ROW (1:4)

3 #COLUMN (1:3)

4 #PLANE (1:3)

5 #FIELD2 (P3) INIT (1,2,2) <100>
END-DEFINE
```

If defined as a local data area in the data area editor, the same array would look as follows:

I T	L Name	F	Leng	Index/Init/EM/Name/Comment
	1 #ARRAY2 2 #ROW	_		(1:4)
l .	3 #COLUMN			(1:3)
	4 #PLANE			(1:3)
I	5 #FIELD2	Р	3	

Arrays as Part of a Larger Data Structure

The multiple dimensions of an array make it possible to define data structures analogous to COBOL or PL1 structures.

Example:

Arrays Database Arrays

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #AREA
2 #FIELD1 (A10)
2 #GROUP1 (1:10)
3 #FIELD2 (P2)
3 #FIELD3 (N1/1:4)
END-DEFINE
...
```

In this example, the data area #AREA has a total size of:

```
10 + (10 * (2 + (1 * 4))) bytes = 70 bytes.
```

#FIELD1 is alphanumeric and 10 bytes long. #GROUP1 is the name of a sub-area within #AREA which consists of 2 fields and has 10 occurrences. #FIELD2 is packed numeric, length 2. #FIELD3 is the second field of #GROUP1 with four occurrences, and is numeric, length 1.

To reference a particular occurrence of #FIELD3, two indices are required: first, the occurrence of #GROUP1 must be specified, and second, the particular occurrence of #FIELD3 must also be specified. For example, in an ADD statement later in the same program, #FIELD3 would be referenced as follows:

```
ADD 2 TO #FIELD3 (3,2)
```

Database Arrays

Adabas supports array structures within the database in the form of multiple-value fields and periodic groups. These are described under Database Arrays.

The following example shows a DEFINE DATA view containing a multiple-value field:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 EMPLOYEES-VIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 ADDRESS-LINE (1:10) /* <--- MULTIPLE-VALUE FIELD
END-DEFINE
```

The same view in a local data area would look as follows:

Using Arithmetic Expressions in Index Notation

A simple arithmetic expression may also be used to express a range of occurrences in an array.

Examples:

MA (I:I+5) Values of the field MA are referenced, beginning with value I and ending with value I+5.

MA (I+2:J-3) Values of the field MA are referenced, beginning with value I+2 and ending with value J-3.

Only the arithmetic operators "+" and "-" may be used in index expressions.

Arithmetic Support for Arrays

Arithmetic support for arrays include operations at array level, at row/column level, and at individual element level. Only simple arithmetic expressions are permitted with array variables, with only one or two operands and an optional third variable as the receiving field. Only the arithmetic operators "+" and "-" are allowed for expressions defining index ranges.

Examples of Array Arithmetics

The following examples assume the following field definitions:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
01 #A (N5/1:10,1:10)
01 #B (N5/1:10,1:10)
01 #C (N5)
END-DEFINE
```

1. **ADD** #**A**(*,*) **TO** #**B**(*,*)

The result operand, array #B, contains the addition, element by element, of the array #A and the original value of array #B.

2. ADD 4 TO #A(*,2)

The second column of the array #A is replaced by its original value plus 4.

3. **ADD 2 TO #A(2,*)**

The second row of the array #A is replaced by its original value plus 2.

4. **ADD** #**A**(2,*) **TO** #**B**(4,*)

The value of the second row of array #A is added to the fourth row of array #B.

5. ADD #A(2,*) TO #B(*,2)

This is an illegal operation and will result in a syntax error. Rows may only be added to rows and columns to columns.

6. ADD #A(2,*) TO #C

All values in the second row of the array #A are added to the scalar value #C.

7. ADD #A(2,5:7) TO #C

The fifth, sixth, and seventh column values of the second row of array #A are added to the scalar value #C.

Data Blocks Data Blocks

Data Blocks

To save data storage space, you can create a global data area with data blocks.

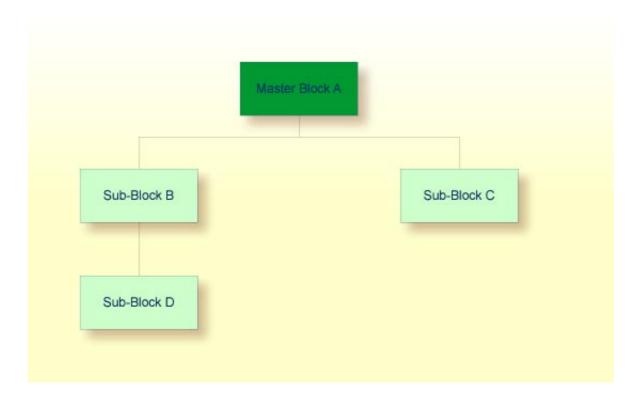
The following topics are covered:

- Example of Data Block Usage
- Defining Data Blocks
- Block Hierarchies

Example of Data Block Usage

Data blocks can overlay each other during program execution, thereby saving storage space.

For example, given the following hierarchy, Blocks B and C would be assigned the same storage area. Thus it would not be possible for Blocks B and C to be in use at the same time. Modifying Block B would result in destroying the contents of Block C.



Defining Data Blocks

You define data blocks in the data area editor. You establish the block hierarchy by specifying which block is subordinate to which: you do this by entering the name of the "parent" block in the comment field of the block definition.

In the following example, SUB-BLOCKB and SUB-BLOCKC are subordinate to MASTER-BLOCKA; SUB-BLOCKD is subordinate to SUB-BLOCKB.

Block Hierarchies Data Blocks

The maximum number of block levels is 8 (including the master block).

Example:

Global Data Area G-BLOCK:

I	T -	L	Name	F	Leng	Index/Init/EM/Name/Comment
	В		MASTER-BLOCKA			
		1	MB-DATA01	Α	10	
	В		SUB-BLOCKB			MASTER-BLOCKA
		1	SBB-DATA01	Α	20	
	В		SUB-BLOCKC			MASTER-BLOCKA
		1	SBC-DATA01	Α	40	
	В		SUB-BLOCKD			SUB-BLOCKB
		1	SBD-DATA01	A	40	

To make the specific blocks available to a program, you use the following syntax in the DEFINE DATA statement:

Program 1:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA
END-DEFINE
```

<u>Program 2:</u>

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA.SUB-BLOCKB
END-DEFINE
```

Program 3:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA.SUB-BLOCKC
END-DEFINE
```

Program 4:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA.SUB-BLOCKB.SUB-BLOCKD
END-DEFINE
```

With this structure, Program 1 can share the data in MASTER-BLOCKA with Program 2, Program 3 or Program 4. However, Programs 2 and 3 cannot share the data areas of SUB-BLOCKB and SUB-BLOCKC because these data blocks are defined at the same level of the structure and thus occupy the same storage area.

Block Hierarchies

Care needs to be taken when using data block hierarchies. Let us assume the following scenario with three programs using a data block hierarchy:

Data Blocks Block Hierarchies

Program 1:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA.SUB-BLOCKB
END-DEFINE
*
MOVE 1234 TO SBB-DATA01
FETCH 'PROGRAM2'
END
```

Program 2:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL
USING G-BLOCK
WITH MASTER-BLOCKA
END-DEFINE
*
FETCH 'PROGRAM3'
END
```

Program 3:

```
DEFINE DATA GLOBAL

USING G-BLOCK

WITH MASTER-BLOCKA.SUB-BLOCKB

END-DEFINE

*

WRITE SBB-DATA01

END
```

Explanation

- Program 1 uses the global data area G-BLOCK with MASTER-BLOCKA and SUB-BLOCKB. The program modifies a field in SUB-BLOCKB and FETCHes Program 2 which specifies only MASTER-BLOCKA in its data definition.
- Program 2 resets (deletes the contents of) SUB-BLOCKB. The reason is that a program on Level 1 (for example, a program called with a FETCH statement) resets any data blocks that are subordinate to the blocks it defines in its own data definition.
- Program 2 now FETCHes program 3 which is to display the field modified in Program 1, but it returns an empty screen.

For details on program levels, see Multiple Levels of Invoked Objects.

Accessing Data in an Adabas Database

This document describes various aspects of accessing data in a database with Natural.

The following topics are covered:

- Data Definition Modules (DDMs)
- Database Arrays
- DEFINE DATA Views
- Statements for Database Access
 - O READ Statement
 - O FIND Statement
 - O HISTOGRAM Statement
- Multi-Fetch Clause
- Database Processing Loops
- Database Update Transaction Processing
- Statements ACCEPT and REJECT
- AT START/END OF DATA Statements

Data Definition Modules - DDMs

The following topics are covered:

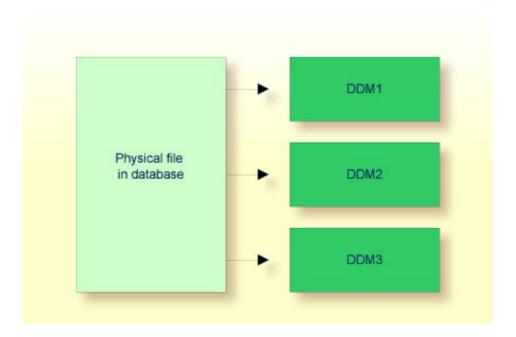
- Use of Data Definition Modules
- Listing/Displaying DDMs
- Components of a DDM

Use of Data Definition Modules

For Natural to be able to access a database file, a logical definition of the physical database file is required. Such a logical file definition is called a data definition module (DDM).

The DDM contains information about the individual fields of the file - information which is relevant for the use of these fields in a Natural program. A DDM constitutes a logical view of a physical database file.

For each physical file of a database, one or more DDMs can be defined.



DDMs are defined by the Natural administrator with Predict (or, if Predict is not available, with the corresponding Natural function).

Use the system command SYSDDM to invoke the SYSDDM utility. The SYSDDM utility is used to perform all functions needed for the creation and maintenance of Natural data definition modules.

For further information on the SYSDDM utility, see the section SYSDDM Utility in the Natural Utilities documentation and the section DDM Services in the Natural Editors documentation.

The length of a DDM name is restricted to 32 characters.

For each database field, a DDM contains the database-internal field name as well as the "external" field name, that is, the name of the field as used in a Natural program. Moreover, the formats and lengths of the fields are defined in the DDM, as well as various specifications that are used when the fields are output with a DISPLAY or WRITE statement (column headings, edit masks, etc.).

Listing/Displaying DDMs

If you do not know the name of the DDM you want, you can use the system command LIST DDM to get a list of all existing DDMs that are available. From the list, you can then select a DDM for display.

To display a DDM whose name you know, you use the system command LIST DDM ddm-name.

For example:

LIST DDM EMPLOYEES

A list of all fields defined in the DDM will then be displayed, along with information about each field, see the following section Components of a DDM.

Components of a DDM

For each field, a DDM contains the following information:

Column	Explanation	
Т	The <i>type</i> of the field:	
	blank Elementary field. This type of field can have only one value within a record.	
	M Multiple-value field. This type of field can have more than one value within a record.	
	P Periodic group. A periodic group is a group of fields that can have more than one occurrence within a record.	
	Group. A group is a number of fields defined under one common group name. This makes it possible to reference several fields collectively by using the group name instead of the names of all the individual fields.	
	* Comment line.	
L	The <i>level</i> number assigned to the field. Levels are used to indicate the structure and grouping of the field definitions. This is relevant with view definitions, redefinitions and field groups.	
DB	The two-character database-internal field name.	
Name	The 3- to 32-character <i>external field name</i> . This is the field name used in a Natural program to reference the field.	
	HD= indicates a default column header to appear above the field when the field is output via a DISPLAY statement. If no header is specified, the field name is used as column header.	
	EM = indicates a default edit mask to be used when the field is output via a DISPLAY statement.	
F	The <i>format</i> of the field (A=alphanumeric, N=numeric unpacked, P=packed numeric, etc.).	
Len	The <i>length</i> of the field. For numeric fields, length is specified as " <i>nn.m</i> ", where " <i>nn</i> " is the number of digits before the decimal point and " <i>m</i> " is the number of digits after the decimal point.	

Column	Explanation	
S	The type of <i>suppression</i> assigned to the field:	
	N indicates <i>null-value suppression</i> , which means that null values for the field will not be returned when the field is used to construct a basic search criterion (WITH clause of a FIND statement), in a HISTOGRAM statement, or in a READ LOGICAL statement.	
	F indicates that the field is defined with the <i>fixed storage</i> option (that is, the field is not compressed).	
	A blank indicates <i>normal compression</i> , which means that trailing blanks in alphanumeric fields and leading zeros in numeric fields are suppressed.	
D	The descriptor type of the field; for example:	
	D elementary descriptor,	
	N non-descriptor,	
	P phonetic descriptor.	
	U subdescriptor,	
	S superdescriptor,	
	A blank in this column indicates that the field is not a descriptor.	
	A descriptor can be used as the basis of a database search. A field which has a "D" or "S" in this column can be used in the BY clause of the READ statement. Once a record has been read from the database using the READ statement, a DISPLAY statement can reference any field which has either a "D" or a blank in the "D" column.	
Remarks	This column can contain <i>comments</i> about the field.	

Above the list of fields, the following is displayed: the number of the file from which the DDM is derived (DDM FNR), the number of the database where that file is stored (DDM DBID), and the "Default Sequence" field, that is, the name of the field used to control logical sequential reading of the file if no such field is specified in the READ LOGICAL statement of a program.

Database Arrays Database Arrays

Database Arrays

Adabas supports array structures within the database in the form of multiple-value fields and periodic groups.

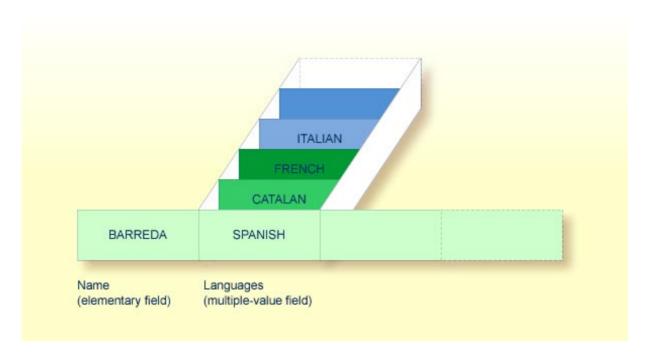
The following topics are covered:

- Multiple-Value Fields
- Periodic Groups
- Referencing Multiple-Value Fields and Periodic Groups
- Multiple-Value Fields Within Periodic Groups
- Referencing Multiple-Value Fields Within Periodic Groups
- Referencing the Internal Count of a Database Array

Multiple-Value Fields

A multiple-value field is a field which can have more than one value (up to 191) within a given record.

Example:



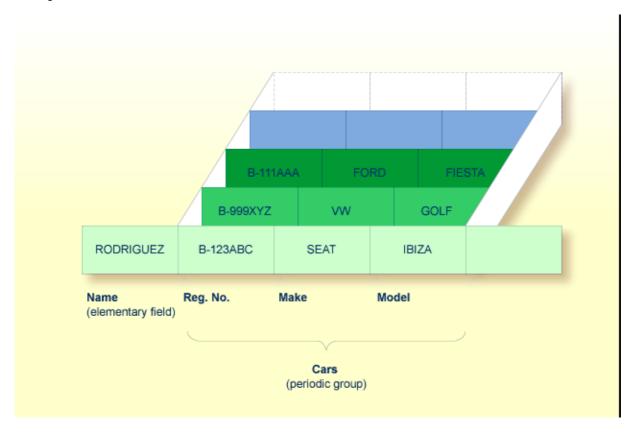
Assuming that the above is a record in an employees file, the first field (Name) is an elementary field, which can contain only one value, namely the name of the person; whereas the second field (Languages), which contains the languages spoken by the person, is a multiple-value field, as a person can speak more than one language.

Periodic Groups

A periodic group is a group of fields (which may be elementary fields and/or multiple-value fields) that may have more than one occurrence (up to 191) within a given record.

The different values of an multiple-value field are usually called *occurrences*; that is, the number of occurrences is the number of values which the field contains, and a specific occurrence means a specific value. Similarly, in the case of periodic groups, occurrences refer to a group of values.

Example:



Assuming that the above is a record in a vehicles file, the first field (Name) is an elementary field which contains the name of a person; Cars is a periodic group which contains the automobiles owned by that person. The periodic group consists of three fields which contain the registration number, make and model of each automobile. Each occurrence of Cars contains the values for one automobile.

Referencing Multiple-Value Fields and Periodic Groups

To reference one or more occurrences of a multiple-value field or a periodic group, you specify an *index notation* after the field name.

Examples:

The following examples use the multiple-value field LANGUAGES and the periodic group CARS from the previous examples.

The various values of the multiple-value field LANGUAGES can be referenced as follows.

LANGUAGES (1) References the first value ("SPANISH").	
LANGUAGES (X)	The value of the variable X determines the value to be referenced.
LANGUAGES (1:3)	References the first three values ("SPANISH", "CATALAN" and "FRENCH").
LANGUAGES (6:10)	References the sixth to tenth values.
LANGUAGES (X:Y)	The values of the variables X and Y determine the values to be referenced.

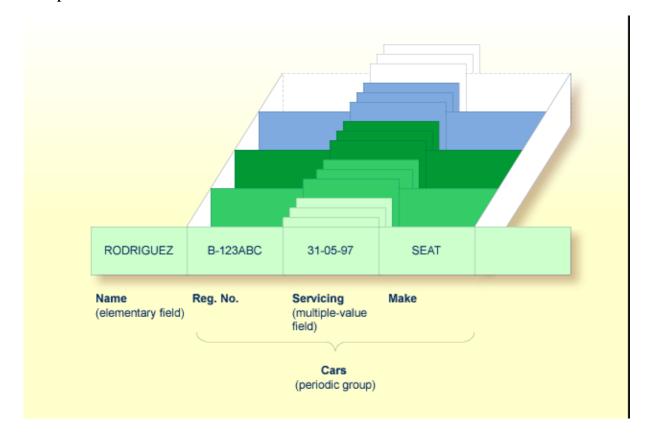
The various occurrences of the periodic group CARS can be referenced in the same manner:

CARS (1)	References the first occurrence ("B-123ABC/SEAT/IBIZA").	
CARS (X)	The value of the variable X determines the occurrence to be referenced.	
CARS (1:2)	CARS (1:2) References the first two occurrences ("B-123ABC/ SEAT/IBIZA" and "B-999XYZ/VW/GOLF").	
CARS (4:7)	CARS (4:7) References the fourth to seventh occurrences.	
CARS (X:Y)	The values of the variables X and Y determine the occurrences to be referenced.	

Multiple-Value Fields Within Periodic Groups

An Adabas array can have up to two dimensions: a multiple-value field within a periodic group.

Example:



Assuming that the above is a record in a vehicles file, the first field (Name) is an elementary field which contains the name of a person; Cars is a periodic group which contains the automobiles owned by that person. The periodic group consists of three fields which contain the registration number, servicing dates and make of each automobile. Within the periodic group Cars, the field Servicing is a multiple-value field, containing the different servicing dates for each automobile.

Referencing Multiple-Value Fields Within Periodic Groups

To reference one or more occurrences of a multiple-value field within a periodic group, you specify a "two-dimensional"index notation after the field name.

Examples:

The following examples use the multiple-value field SERVICING within the periodic group CARS from the example above. The various values of the multiple-value field can be referenced as follows:

SERVICING (1,1)	References the first value of SERVICING in the first occurrence of CARS ("31-05-97")
SERVICING (1:5,1)	References the first value of SERVICING in the first five occurrences of CARS.
SERVICING (1:5,1:10)	References the first ten values of SERVICING in the first five occurrences of CARS.

Referencing the Internal Count of a Database Array

It is sometimes necessary to reference a multiple-value field or a periodic group without knowing how many values/occurrences exist in a given record. Adabas maintains an internal count of the number of values in each multiple-value field and the number of occurrences of each periodic group. This count may be read in a READ statement by specifying "C*" immediately before the field name.

The count is returned in format/length N3. See Referencing the Internal Count for a Database Array in the Statements documentation for further details.

Examples:

C*LANGUAGES	Returns the number of values of the multiple-value field LANGUAGES.					
C*CARS	Returns the number of occurrences of the periodic group CARS.					
C*SERVICING(1)	Returns the number of values of the multiple-value field SERVICING in the first occurrence of a periodic group (assuming that SERVICING is a multiple-value field within a periodic group.)					

DEFINE DATA Views DEFINE DATA Views

DEFINE DATA Views

To be able to use database fields in a Natural program, you must specify the fields in a view.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Database Views
- Defining a Database View

Use of Database Views

To be able to use database fields in a Natural program, you must specify the fields in a view.

In the view, you specify

- the name of the Data Definition Module (DDM) from which the fields are taken, and
- the names of the database fields themselves (that is, their long names, not their database-internal short names).

Defining a Database View

You define such a database view either

- within the DEFINE DATA statement of the program, or
- in a local data area (LDA) or a global data area (GDA) outside the program, with the DEFINE DATA statement referencing that data area (as described in the section Defining Fields.

At Level 1, you specify the view name as follows:

1 view-name VIEW OF ddm-name

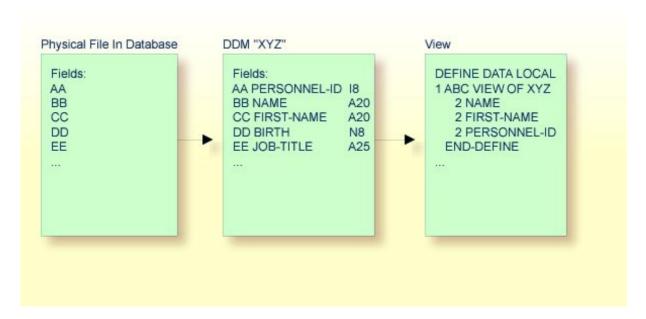
where

view-name is the name you choose for the view,

ddm-name is the name of the DDM from which the fields specified in the view are taken.

At Level 2, you specify the names of the database fields from the DDM.

In the illustration below, the name of the view is "ABC", and it comprises the fields NAME, FIRST-NAME and PERSONNEL-ID from the DDM "XYZ".



The format and length of a database field need not be specified in the view, as these are already defined in the underlying DDM.

The view may comprise an entire DDM or only a subset of it. The order of the fields in the view need not be the same as in the underlying DDM.

The view name is used in database access statements to determine which database is to be accessed, as described in Statements for Database Access.

Statements for Database Access

To read data from a database, the following statements are available:

READ Select a range of records from a database in a specified sequence.

FIND Select from a database those records which meet a specified search criterion.

HISTOGRAM

Read only the values of one database field, or determine the number of records which meet a

specified search criterion.

READ Statement

The following topics are covered:

- Use of READ Statement
- Basic Syntax of READ Statement
- Limiting the Number of Records to be Read
- STARTING/ENDING Clauses
- WHERE Clause
- Further Example of READ Statement

Use of READ Statement

The READ statement is used to read records from a database. The records can be retrieved from the database

- in the order in which they are physically stored in the database (READ IN PHYSICAL SEQUENCE), or
- in the order of Adabas Internal Sequence Numbers (READ BY ISN), or
- in the order of the values of a descriptor field (READ IN LOGICAL SEQUENCE).

In this document, only READ IN LOGICAL SEQUENCE is discussed, as it is the most frequently used form of the READ statement.

For information on the other two options, please refer to the description of the READ statement in the Natural Statements documentation.

Basic Syntax of READ Statement

The basic syntax of the READ statement is:

READ view IN LOGICAL SEQUENCE BY descriptor

or shorter:

READ view LOGICAL BY descriptor

view is the name of a view defined in the DEFINE DATA statement (as explained in DEFINE DATA Views).

descriptor is the name of a database field defined in that view. The values of this field determine the order in which the records are read from the database.

If you specify a descriptor, you need not specify the keyword "LOGICAL":

```
READ view BY descriptor
```

If you do not specify a descriptor, the records will be read in the order of values of the field defined as default descriptor (under "Default Sequence") in the DDM. However, if you specify no descriptor, you must specify the keyword"LOGICAL":

```
READ view LOGICAL
```

Example:

```
** Example Program 'READX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 NAME
2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE
READ (6) MYVIEW BY NAME
DISPLAY NAME PERSONNEL-ID JOB-TITLE
END-READ
END
```

With the READ statement in the above example, records from the EMPLOYEES file are read in alphabetical order of their last names.

The above program will produce the following output, displaying the information of each employee in alphabetical order of the employees' last names:

Page	1			99-08-19	13:16:04
	NAME	PERSONNEL ID	CURRENT POSITION		
				_	
ABELLAI	N	60008339	MAQUINISTA		
ACHIES	ON	30000231	DATA BASE ADMINISTRATOR		
ADAM		50005800	CHEF DE SERVICE		
ADKINS	ON	20008800	PROGRAMMER		
ADKINS	ON	20009800	DBA		
ADKINS	ON	2001100			

If you wanted to read the records to create a report with the employees listed in sequential order by date of birth, the appropriate READ statement would be:

```
READ MYVIEW BY BIRTH
```

You can only specify a field which is defined as a "descriptor" in the underlying DDM (it can also be a subdescriptor, superdescriptor or hyperdescriptor).

Limiting the Number of Records to be Read

As shown in the previous example program, you can limit the number of records to be read by specifying a number in parentheses after the keyword READ:

```
READ (6) MYVIEW BY NAME
```

In that example, the READ statement would read no more than 6 records.

Without the limit notation, the above READ statement would read *all* records from the EMPLOYEES file in the order of last names from A to Z.

STARTING/ENDING Clauses

The READ statement also allows you to qualify the selection of records based on the **value** of a descriptor field. With an EQUAL TO/STARTING FROM option in the BY or WITH clause, you can specify the value at which reading should begin. By adding a THRU/ENDING AT option, you can also specify the value in the logical sequence at which reading should end.

For example, if you wanted a list of those employees in the order of job titles starting with "TRAINEE" and continuing on to "Z", you would use one of the following statements:

```
READ MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE = 'TRAINEE'
READ MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE STARTING from 'TRAINEE'
READ MYVIEW BY JOB-TITLE = 'TRAINEE'
READ MYVIEW BY JOB-TITLE STARTING from 'TRAINEE'
```

Note that the value to the right of the equal sign (=) or STARTING FROM option must be enclosed in apostrophes. If the value is numeric, this *text notation* is not required.

If a BY option is used, a WITH option cannot be used and vice versa.

The sequence of records to be read can be even more closely specified by adding an end limit with a THRU or ENDING AT clause.

To read just the records with the job title "TRAINEE", you would specify:

```
READ MYVIEW BY JOB-TITLE STARTING from 'TRAINEE' THRU 'TRAINEE' READ MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE EQUAL TO 'TRAINEE' ENDING AT 'TRAINEE'
```

To read just the records with job titles that begin with "A" or "B", you would specify:

```
READ MYVIEW BY JOB-TITLE = 'A' THRU 'C'
READ MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE STARTING from 'A' ENDING AT 'C'
```

The values are read up to and including the value specified after THRU/ENDING AT. In the two examples above, all records with job titles that begin with "A" or "B" are read; if there were a job title "C", this would also be read, but not the next higher value "CA".

WHERE Clause

The WHERE clause may be used to further qualify which records are to be read.

For instance, if you wanted only those employees with job titles starting from "TRAINEE" who are paid in US currency, you would specify:

```
READ MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE = 'TRAINEE'
WHERE CURR-CODE = 'USD'
```

The WHERE clause can also be used with the BY clause as follows:

```
READ MYVIEW BY NAME
WHERE SALARY = 20000
```

The WHERE clause differs from the BY/WITH clause in two respects:

- The field specified in the WHERE clause need not be a descriptor.
- The expression following the WHERE option is a logical condition.

The following logical operators are possible in a WHERE clause:

EQUAL	EQ	=
NOT EQUAL TO	NE	7=
LESS THAN	LT	<
LESS THAN OR EQUAL TO	LE	<=
GREATER THAN	GT	>
GREATER THAN OR EQUAL TO	GE	>=

The following program illustrates the use of the STARTING FROM, ENDING AT and WHERE clauses:

```
** Example Program 'READX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 INCOME (1:2)
    3 CURR-CODE
    3 SALARY
    3 BONUS (1:1)
END-DEFINE
READ (3) MYVIEW WITH JOB-TITLE = 'TRAINEE' THRU 'TRAINEE'
         WHERE CURR-CODE (*) = 'USD'
 DISPLAY NOTITLE NAME / JOB-TITLE 5X INCOME (1:2)
 SKIP 1
END-READ
END
```

It produces the following output:

NAME CURRENT		INCOME	
POSITION	CURRENCY CODE	ANNUAL SALARY	BONUS
SENKO	USD	23000	0
TRAINEE	USD	21800	0
BANGART	USD	25000	0
TRAINEE	USD	23000	0
LINCOLN	USD	24000	0
TRAINEE	USD	22000	0

Further Example of READ Statement

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• READX03

FIND Statement

The following topics are covered:

- Use of FIND Statement
- Basic Syntax of FIND Statement
- Limiting the Number of Records to be Processed
- WHERE Clause
- Example of WHERE Clause
- IF NO RECORDS FOUND Condition
- Example of IF NO RECORDS FOUND Clause
- Further Examples of FIND Statement

Use of FIND Statement

The FIND statement is used to select from a database those records which meet a specified search criterion.

Basic Syntaxof FIND Statement

The basic syntax of the FIND statement is:

```
FIND RECORDS IN view WITH field = value
```

or shorter:

where

view is the name of a view defined in the DEFINE DATA statement (as explained in section DEFINE DATA Views),

field is the name of a database field defined in that view.

You can only specify a *field* which is defined as a "descriptor" in the underlying DDM (it can also be a subdescriptor, superdescriptor, hyperdescriptor or phonetic descriptor).

For the complete syntax, refer to the FIND statement documentation.

Limiting the Number of Records to be Processed

In the same way as with the READ statement, you can limit the number of records to be processed by specifying a number in parentheses after the keyword FIND:

```
FIND (6) RECORDS IN MYVIEW WITH NAME = 'CLEGG'
```

In the above example, only the first 6 records that meet the search criterion would be processed.

Without the limit notation, all records that meet the search criterion would be processed.

Note:

If the FIND statement contains a WHERE clause (see below), records which are rejected as a result of the WHERE clause are **not** counted against the limit.

WHERE Clause

With the WHERE clause of the FIND statement, you can specify an additional selection criterion which is evaluated *after* a record (selected with the WITH clause) has been read and *before* any processing is performed on the record.

Example of WHERE Clause

```
** Example Program 'FINDX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 CITY

END-DEFINE

*

FIND MYVIEW WITH CITY = 'PARIS'

WHERE JOB-TITLE = 'INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL'

DISPLAY NOTITLE CITY JOB-TITLE PERSONNEL-ID NAME

END-FIND
```

Note that in this example only those records which meet the criteria of the WITH clause *and* the WHERE clause are processed in the DISPLAY statement.

CITY	CURRENT POSITION	PERSONNEL ID	NAME
PARIS PARIS PARIS PARIS PARIS	INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL INGENIEUR COMMERCIAL	50007300 50006500 50004400 50002800 50001000	CAHN MAZUY VALLY BRETON GIGLEUX

IF NO RECORDS FOUND Condition

If no records are found that meet the search criteria specified in the WITH and WHERE clauses, the statements within the FIND processing loop are not executed (for the previous example, this would mean that the DISPLAY statement would not be executed and consequently no employee data would be displayed).

However, the FIND statement also provides an IF NO RECORDS FOUND clause, which allows you to specify processing you wish to be performed in the case that no records meet the search criteria.

Example of IF NO RECORDS FOUND Clause

```
** Example Program 'FINDX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
END-DEFINE
*
FIND MYVIEW WITH NAME = 'BLACKMORE'
IF NO RECORDS FOUND
WRITE 'NO PERSON FOUND.'
END-NOREC
DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME
END-FIND
END
```

The above program selects all records in which the field NAME contains the value "BLACKMORE". For each selected record, the name and first name are displayed. If no record with NAME = 'BLACKMORE' is found on the file, the WRITE statement within the IF NO RECORDS FOUND clause is executed:

Further Examples of FIND Statement

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- FINDX07
- FINDX08
- FINDX09
- FINDX10
- FINDX11

HISTOGRAM Statement

The following topics are covered:

- Use of HISTOGRAM Statement
- Syntax of HISTOGRAM Statement
- Limiting the Number of Values to be Read
- STARTING/ENDING Clauses
- WHERE Clause
- Example of HISTOGRAM Statement

Use of HISTOGRAM Statement

The HISTOGRAM statement is used to either read only the values of one database field, or determine the number of records which meet a specified search criterion.

The HISTOGRAM statement does not provide access to any database fields other than the one specified in the HISTOGRAM statement.

Syntax of HISTOGRAM Statement

The basic syntax of the HISTOGRAM statement is:

HISTOGRAM VALUE IN view FOR field

or shorter:

HISTOGRAM view FOR field

where

view is the name of a view defined in the DEFINE DATA statement (as explained earlier in section DEFINE DATA Views),

field is the name of the database field defined in that view.

For the complete syntax, refer to the HISTOGRAM statement documentation.

Limiting the Number of Values to be Read

In the same way as with the READ statement, you can limit the number of values to be read by specifying a number in parentheses after the keyword HISTOGRAM:

HISTOGRAM (6) MYVIEW FOR NAME

In the above example, only the first 6 values of the field NAME would be read.

Without the limit notation, all values would be read.

STARTING/ENDING Clauses

Like the READ statement, the HISTOGRAM statement also provides a STARTING FROM clause and an ENDING AT (or THRU) clause to narrow down the range of values to be read by specifying a starting value and ending value.

Examples:

```
HISTOGRAM MYVIEW FOR NAME STARTING from 'BOUCHARD'
HISTOGRAM MYVIEW FOR NAME STARTING from 'BOUCHARD' ENDING AT 'LANIER'
HISTOGRAM MYVIEW FOR NAME from 'BLOOM' THRU 'ROESER'
```

WHERE Clause

The HISTOGRAM statement also provides a WHERE clause which may be used to specify an additional selection criterion that is evaluated *after* a value has been read and *before* any processing is performed on the value. The field specified in the WHERE clause must be the same as in the main clause of the HISTOGRAM statement.

Example of HISTOGRAM Statement

```
** Example Program 'HISTOX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 CITY

END-DEFINE

*

LIMIT 8

HISTOGRAM MYVIEW CITY STARTING from 'M'
DISPLAY NOTITLE CITY 'NUMBER OF/PERSONS' *NUMBER *COUNTER
END-HISTOGRAM
END
```

In this program, the system variables *NUMBER and *COUNTER are also evaluated by the HISTOGRAM statement, and output with the DISPLAY statement. *NUMBER contains the number of database records that contain the last value read; *COUNTER contains the total number of values which have been read.

CITY	NUMBER OF PERSONS	CNT
MADISON	3	1
MADRID	41	2
MAILLY LE CAMP	1	3
MAMERS	1	4
MANSFIELD	4	5
MARSEILLE	2	6
MATLOCK	1	7
MELBOURNE	2	8

Multi-Fetch Clause Multi-Fetch Clause

Multi-Fetch Clause

This document covers the multi-fetch record retrieval functionality for Adabas databases. This feature is available both under Windows/UNIX and on mainframes, however, there are differences in the usage of multi-fetch on those systems.

The multi-fetch functionality is only supported for Adabas.

The following topics are covered:

- Multi-Fetch on Mainframes
- Multi-Fetch under Windows and UNIX

Multi-Fetch on Mainframes

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Multi-Fetch Feature on Mainframes
- Considerations for Multi-Fetch Usage
- Size of the Multi-Fetch Buffer
- Support of TEST DBLOG

Use of Multi-Fetch Feature on Mainframes

In standard mode, Natural does not read multiple records with a single database call; it always operates in a one-record-per-fetch mode. This kind of operation is solid and stable, but can take some time if a large number of database records are being processed.

To improve the performance of those programs, you can use the Multi-Fetch clause in the FIND, READ or HISTOGRAM statements. This allows you to define the Multi-Fetch-Factor, a numeric value that specifies the number of records read per database access.

```
FIND
READ
HISTOGRAM
MULTI-FETCH [OF] <multi-fetch-factor>
```

Where the *<multi-fetch-factor>* is either a constant or a variable with a format integer (I4).

At statement execution time, the runtime checks if a *<multi-fetch-factor>* greater than 1 is supplied for the database statement.

If the < multi-fetch-factor > is

less than or equal to 1	the database call is continued in the usual one-record-per-access mode.
greater than 1	the database call is prepared dynamically to read multiple records (e.g. 10) with a single database access into an auxiliary buffer (multi-fetch buffer). If successful, the first record is transferred into the underlying data view. Upon the execution of the next loop, the data view is filled directly from the multi-fetch buffer, without database access. After all records are fetched from the multi-fetch buffer, the next loop results in the next record set being read from the database. If the database loop is terminated (either by end-of-records, ESCAPE, STOP, etc.), the content of the multi-fetch buffer is released.

Considerations for Multi-Fetch Usage

- A multi-fetch access is only supported for a browse loop; in other words, when the records are read with "no hold".
- The program does not receive "fresh" records from the database for every loop, but operates with images retrieved at the most recent multi-fetch access.
- If a loop repositioning is triggered for a READ / HISTOGRAM statement, the content of the multi-fetch buffer at that point is released.
- If a dynamic direction change (IN DYNAMIC...SEQUENCE) is coded for a READ / HISTOGRAM statement, the multi-fetch feature is not possible and leads to a corresponding syntax error at compilation.
- The first record of a FIND loop is retrieved with the initial S1 command. Since Adabas multi-fetch is just defined for all kinds of Lx commands, it first can be used from the second record.
- The size occupied by a database loop in the multi-fetch buffer is determined according to the rule:

```
((record-buffer-length + isn-buffer-entry-length) * multi-fetch-factor ) + 4 + header-length
=
((size-of-view-fields + 20) * multi-fetch-factor) + 4 + 128
```

In order to keep the required space small, the multi-fetch factor is automatically reduced at runtime, if

- O the "loop-limit" (e.g. READ (2) ..) is smaller, but only if no WHERE clause is involved;
- the "ISN quantity" (for FIND statement only) is smaller;
- the resulting size of the Record-Buffer or ISN-Buffer exceeds 32KB.

Moreover, the multi-fetch option is completely ignored at runtime, if

- the multi-fetch factor contains a value less equal 1;
- the multi-fetch buffer is not available or does not have enough free space (for more details, refer to Size of the Multi-Fetch Buffer below).

Size of the Multi-Fetch Buffer

In order to control the amount of storage available for multi-fetch purposes, you can limit the maximum size of the multi-fetch buffer.

Inside the NATPARM definition, you can make a static assignment via the parameter macro NTDS:

```
NTDS MULFETCH, nn
```

At session start, you can also use the profile parameter DS:

```
DS=(MULFETCH, nn)
```

where "nn" represents the complete size allowed to be allocated for multi-fetch purposes (in KB). The value may be set in the range (**0 - 1024**), with a default value of **64**. Setting a high value does not necessarily mean having a buffer allocated of that size, since the multi-fetch handler makes dynamic allocations and resizes, depending on what is really needed to execute a multi-fetch database statement. If no multi-fetch database statement is executed in a Natural session, the multi-fetch buffer will never be created, regardless of which value was set.

If value 0 is specified, the multi-fetch processing is completely disabled, no matter if a database access statement contains a "MULTI-FETCH OF .." clause or not. This allows to completely switch off all multi-fetch activities when there is not enough storage available in the current environment or for debugging purposes.

Note:

Due to existing Adabas limitations, you may not have a Record-Buffer or ISN-Buffer larger than 32 KB. Therefore you need only a maximum of 64 KB space in the multi-fetch buffer for a single FIND, READ or HISTOGRAM loop. The required value setting for the multi-fetch buffer depends on the number of nested database loops you want to serve with multi-fetch.

Support of TEST DBLOG

When multi-fetch is used, real database calls are only submitted to get a new set of records. However, if somebody likes to debug his program with the TEST DBLOG facility, he would neither be able to look at the records processed by his program nor to SNAP at a specific position, because they are filled internally from the multi-fetch buffer.

In order to improve this situation, the multi-fetch handler also triggers calls to TEST DBLOG for every record moved from the multi-fetch buffer. To make these special database calls visible (in the TEST DBLOG list), the command Option1 is set to "<".

Example: TEST DBLOG List Break-Out

No	Cmd	DB	FNR	Rsp	ISN	ISQ	CID	CID(Hex)	OP	Pgm	Line
2	S1	177	4		89	6	? ??	04000101		TEST006A	0400
3	L1	177	4		108	6	? ??	04000101	MN	TEST006A	0400
4	L1	177	4		299	6	? ??	04000101	<n< td=""><td>TEST006A</td><td>0400</td></n<>	TEST006A	0400
5	L1	177	4		418	6	3 33	04000101	<n< td=""><td>TEST006A</td><td>0400</td></n<>	TEST006A	0400

Where column No represents the following:

2	is an ordinary database call without any multi-fetching.
3	is a "real" database call that reads a set of records via multi-fetch (see "M" in column OP) and returns the first record back to the program. The data displayed in the Record Buffer and ISN Buffer do not correspond to the statement in the program, because they contain the values (especially for the ISN-Buffer) of all the records being fetched by the database. The data returned to the program is just the first record, the remaining data will be stored in the multi-fetch buffer.
4-5	are "no real" database calls, but only entries that document that the program has received these records from the multi-fetch buffer (see "<" in column OP). All the data in the CB, FB, RB, SB, VB and IB are exactly the same, like when they were fetched from the database.

Multi-Fetch under Windows and UNIX

By default, Natural uses single-fetch to retrieve data from Adabas databases. This default can be configured using the profile parameter MFSET.

Values "ON" (multi-fetch) and "OFF" (single-fetch) define the default behavior. If MFSET is set to "NEVER", Natural always uses single-fetch mode and ignores any settings at statement level.

Multi-fetch processing is supported for the following statements that do not involve database modification:

- FIND
- READ
- HISTOGRAM

To minimize the number of required Adabas calls, several results are retrieved in one call.

If nested database loops that refer to the same Adabas file contain UPDATE statements in one of the inner loops, Natural continues processing the outer loops with the updated values. This implies in multi-fetch mode, that an outer logical READ loop has to be repositioned if an inner database loop updates the value of the descriptor that is used for sequence control in the outer loop. If this attempt leads to a conflict for the current descriptor, an error is returned. To avoid this situation, we recommend that you disable multi-fetch in the outer database loops.

In general, multi-fetch mode improves performance when accessing Adabas databases. In some cases, however, it might be advantageous to use single-fetch to enhance performance, especially if database modifications are involved.

The default processing mode can be overridden at statement level. For further information on the syntax, see the FIND, READ or HISTOGRAM statements, subsection MULTI-FETCH Clause.

Database Processing Loops

This document discusses processing loops required to process data that have been selected from a database as a result of a FIND, READ or HISTOGRAM statement.

The following topics are covered:

- Creation of Database Processing Loops
- Hierarchies of Processing Loops
- Example of Nested FIND Loops Accessing the Same File
- Further Examples of Nested READ and FIND Statements

Creation of Database Processing Loops

Natural automatically creates the necessary processing loops which are required to process data that have been selected from a database as a result of a FIND, READ or HISTOGRAM statement.

Example:

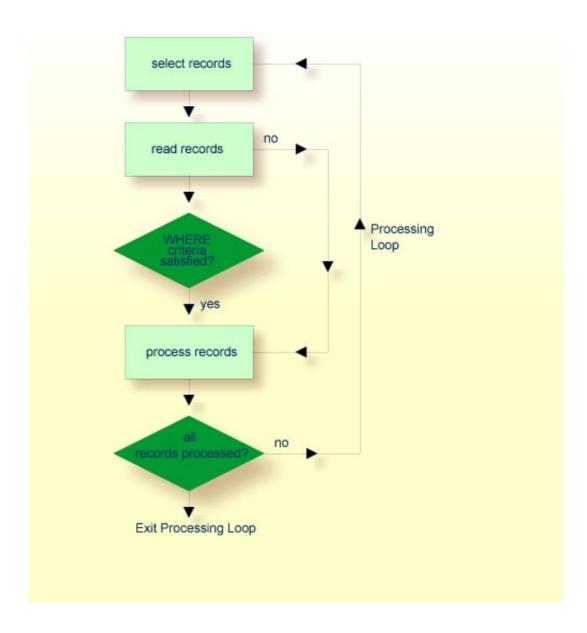
In the following exampe, the FIND loop selects all records from the EMPLOYEES file in which the field NAME contains the value "ADKINSON" and processes the selected records. In this example, the processing consists of displaying certain fields from each record selected.

```
** Example Program 'FINDX03'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 CITY
END-DEFINE
*
FIND MYVIEW WITH NAME = 'ADKINSON'
DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME CITY
END-FIND
END
```

If the FIND statement contained a WHERE clause in addition to the WITH clause, only those records that were selected as a result of the WITH clause **and** met the WHERE criteria would be processed.

The following diagram illustrates the flow logic of a database processing loop:



Hierarchies of Processing Loops

The use of multiple FIND and/or READ statements creates a hierarchy of processing loops, as shown in the following example:

Example of Processing Loop Hierarchy

```
** Example Program 'FINDX04'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 PERSONVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 NAME

1 AUTOVIEW VIEW OF VEHICLES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 MAKE
2 MODEL
END-DEFINE
```

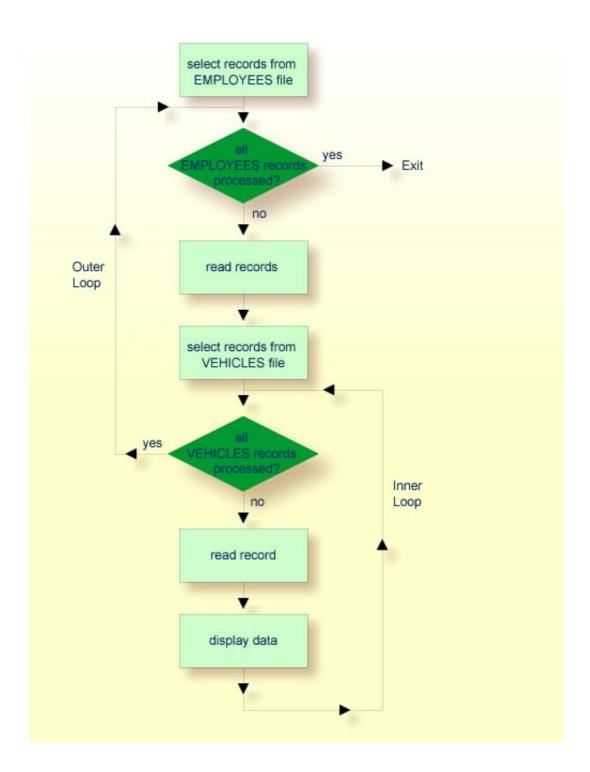
60

The above program selects from the EMPLOYEES file all people with the name "ADKINSON". Each record (person) selected is then processed as follows:

- 1. The second FIND statement is executed to select the automobiles from the VEHICLES file, using as selection criterion the PERSONNEL-IDs from the records selected from the EMPLOYEES file with the first FIND statement.
- 2. The NAME of each person selected is displayed; this information is obtained from the EMPLOYEES file. The MAKE and MODEL of each automobile owned by that person is also displayed; this information is obtained from the VEHICLES file.

The second FIND statement creates an inner processing loop within the outer processing loop of the first FIND statement, as shown in the following diagram.

The diagram illustrates the flow logic of the hierarchy of processing loops in the previous example program:



Example of Nested FIND Loops Accessing the Same File

It is also possible to construct a processing loop hierarchy in which the same file is used at both levels of the hierarchy:

- ** Example Program 'FINDX05'
 DEFINE DATA LOCAL
 - 1 PERSONVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
 - 2 NAME
 - 2 FIRST-NAME

```
2 CITY
1 #NAME (A40)
END-DEFINE
*
WRITE TITLE LEFT JUSTIFIED
'PEOPLE IN SAME CITY AS:' #NAME / 'CITY:' CITY SKIP 1
FIND PERSONVIEW WITH NAME = 'JONES'
WHERE FIRST-NAME = 'LAUREL'
COMPRESS NAME FIRST-NAME INTO #NAME
FIND PERSONVIEW WITH CITY = CITY
DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME CITY
END-FIND
END-FIND
END
```

The above program first selects all people with name "JONES" and first name "LAUREL" from the EMPLOYEES file. Then all who live in the same city are selected from the EMPLOYEES file and a list of these people is created. All field values displayed by the DISPLAY statement are taken from the second FIND statement.

PEOPLE IN SAME CITY AS: JONES LAUREL CITY: BALTIMORE					
NAME	FIRST-NAME	CITY			
JENSEN	MARTHA	BALTIMORE			
LAWLER	EDDIE	BALTIMORE			
FORREST	CLARA	BALTIMORE			
ALEXANDER	GIL	BALTIMORE			
NEEDHAM	SUNNY	BALTIMORE			
ZINN	CARLOS	BALTIMORE			
JONES	LAUREL	BALTIMORE			

Further Examples of Nested READ and FIND Statements

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- READX04
- LIMITX01

Database Update - Transaction Processing

This document describes how Natural performs database updating operations based on transactions.

The following topics are covered:

- Logical Transaction
- Example of STORE Statement
- Record Hold Logic
- Example of GET Statement
- Backing Out a Transaction
- Restarting a Transaction
- Example of Using Transaction Data to Restart a Transaction

Logical Transaction

Natural performs database updating operations based on transactions, which means that all database update requests are processed in logical transaction units. A logical transaction is the smallest unit of work (as defined by you) which must be performed in its entirety to ensure that the information contained in the database is logically consistent.

A logical transaction may consist of one or more update statements (DELETE, STORE, UPDATE) involving one or more database files. A logical transaction may also span multiple Natural programs.

A logical transaction begins when a record is put on "hold"; Natural does this automatically when the record is read for updating, for example, if a FIND loop contains an UPDATE or DELETE statement.

The end of a logical transaction is determined by an END TRANSACTION statement in the program. This statement ensures that all updates within the transaction have been successfully applied, and releases all records that were put on "hold" during the transaction.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

END-DEFINE

FIND MYVIEW WITH NAME = 'SMITH'

DELETE

END TRANSACTION

END-FIND

END
```

Each record selected would be put on "hold", deleted, and then - when the END TRANSACTION statement is executed - released from "hold".

Note:

The Natural profile parameter OPRB, as set by the Natural administrator, determines whether or not Natural will generate an END TRANSACTION statement at the end of each Natural program. Ask your Natural administrator for details.

Example of STORE Statement

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• STOREX01

Record Hold Logic

If Natural is used with Adabas, any record which is to be updated will be placed in "hold" status until an END TRANSACTION or BACKOUT TRANSACTION statement is issued or the transaction time limit is exceeded.

When a record is placed in "hold" status for one user, the record is not available for update by another user. Another user who wishes to update the same record will be placed in "wait" status until the record is released from "hold" when the first user ends or backs out his/her transaction.

To prevent users from being placed in wait status, the session parameter WH (Wait Hold) can be used (see the Natural Parameter Reference documentation).

When you use update logic in a program, you should consider the following:

- The maximum time that a record can be in hold status is determined by the Adabas transaction time limit (Adabas parameter TT). If this time limit is exceeded, you will receive an error message and all database modifications done since the last END TRANSACTION will be made undone.
- The number of records on hold and the transaction time limit are affected by the size of a transaction, that is, by the placement of the END TRANSACTION statement in the program. Restart facilities should be considered when deciding where to issue an END TRANSACTION. For example, if a majority of records being processed are **not** to be updated, the GET statement is an efficient way of controlling the "holding" of records. This avoids issuing multiple END TRANSACTION statements and reduces the number of ISNs on hold. When you process large files, you should bear in mind that the GET statement requires an additional Adabas call. An example of a GET statement is shown below.

Example of GET Statement

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 EMPLOY-VIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 SALARY (1)

END-DEFINE

RD. READ EMPLOY-VIEW BY NAME

IF SALARY (1) > 30000

GE. GET EMPLOY-VIEW *ISN (RD.)

compute SALARY (1) = SALARY (1) * 1.15

UPDATE (GE.)

END TRANSACTION

END-IF

END-READ

END
```

On mainframe computers, the placing of records in "hold" status is also controlled by the profile parameter RI, as set by the Natural administrator.

Backing Out a Transaction

During an active logical transaction, that is, before the END TRANSACTION statement is issued, you can cancel the transaction by using a BACKOUT TRANSACTION statement. The execution of this statement removes all updates that have been applied (including all records that have been added or deleted) and releases all records held by the transaction.

Restarting a Transaction

With the END TRANSACTION statement, you can also store transaction-related information. If processing of the transaction terminates abnormally, you can read this information with a GET TRANSACTION DATA statement to ascertain where to resume processing when you restart the transaction.

Example of Using Transaction Data to Restart a Transaction

The following program updates the EMPLOYEES and VEHICLES files. After a restart operation, the user is informed of the last EMPLOYEES record successfully processed. The user can resume processing from that EMPLOYEES record. It would also be possible to set up the restart transaction message to include the last VEHICLES record successfully updated before the restart operation.

```
** Example Program 'GETTRX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
01 PERSON VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  02 PERSONNEL-ID (A8)
  02 NAME
                    (A20)
                 (A20)
  02 FIRST-NAME
  02 MIDDLE-I (A1)
   02 CITY
                     (A20)
01 AUTO VIEW OF VEHICLES
   02 PERSONNEL-ID (A8)
   02 MAKE
                     (A20)
  02 MODEL
                  (A20)
01 ET-DATA
  02 #APPL-ID
                   (A8) INIT <' '>
   02 #USER-ID
   02 #PROGRAM
                     (A8)
  02 #DATE
                     (A10)
   02 #TIME
                      (A8)
  02 #PERSONNEL-NUMBER (A8)
END-DEFINE
GET TRANSACTION DATA #APPL-ID #USER-ID #PROGRAM
                   #DATE #TIME #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
IF #APPL-ID NOT = 'NORMAL'
                             /* IF LAST EXECUTION ENDED ABNORMALLY
   AND #APPL-ID NOT = ' '
  INPUT (AD=OIL)
   // 20T '*** LAST SUCCESSFUL TRANSACTION ***' (I)
    / 20T '***************************
   /// 25T 'APPLICATION:' #APPL-ID
              'USER:' #USER-ID
'PROGRAM:' #PROGRAM
    / 32T
    / 29T 'PROGRAM:' #PROGRAM
/ 24T 'COMPLETED ON:' #DATE 'AT' #TIME
    / 20T 'PERSONNEL NUMBER:' #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
END-IF
REPEAT
```

```
INPUT (AD=MIL) // 20T 'ENTER PERSONNEL NUMBER:' #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
 IF #PERSONNEL-NUMBER = 99999999
   ESCAPE bottom
 END-IF
 FIND1. FIND PERSON WITH PERSONNEL-ID = #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
  IF NO RECORDS FOUND
    REINPUT 'SPECIFIED NUMBER DOES NOT EXIST; ENTER ANOTHER ONE.'
  END-NOREC
  FIND2. FIND AUTO WITH PERSONNEL-ID = #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
    IF NO RECORDS FOUND
      WRITE 'PERSON DOES NOT OWN ANY CARS'
    END-NOREC
    IF *COUNTER (FIND1.) = 1 /* FIRST PASS THROUGH THE LOOP
      INPUT (AD=M)
        / 20T 'EMPLOYEES/AUTOMOBILE DETAILS' (I)
        / 20T '-----'
      /// 20T 'NUMBER:' PERSONNEL-ID (AD=O)
        / 22T 'NAME:' NAME ' ' FIRST-NAME ' ' MIDDLE-I
                'CITY:' CITY
        / 22T
        / 22T
                'MAKE:' MAKE
        / 21T 'MODEL:' MODEL
                      /* UPDATE THE EMPLOYEES FILE
      UPDATE (FIND1.)
                           /* SUBSEQUENT PASSES THROUGH THE LOOP
    ELSE
       INPUT NO ERASE (AD=M) ////// 20T MAKE / 20T MODEL
     END-TF
                           /* UPDATE THE VEHICLES FILE
     UPDATE (FIND2.)
     MOVE *APPLIC-ID TO #APPL-ID
     MOVE *INIT-USER TO #USER-ID
     MOVE *PROGRAM TO #PROGRAM
     MOVE *DAT4E TO #DATE
     MOVE *TIME
                    TO #TIME
     END TRANSACTION #APPL-ID #USER-ID #PROGRAM
                    #DATE #TIME #PERSONNEL-NUMBER
   END-FIND
                            /* FOR VEHICLES (FIND2.)
 END-FIND
                            /* FOR EMPLOYEES (FIND1.)
                            /* FOR REPEAT
STOP /* Simulate abnormal transaction end
END TRANSACTION 'NORMAL
END
```

Selecting Records Using ACCEPT/REJECT

This document discusses the statements ACCEPT and REJECT which are used to select records based on user-specified logical criteria.

The following topics are covered:

- Statements Usable with ACCEPT and REJECT
- Example of ACCEPT Statement
- Logical Condition Criteria in ACCEPT/REJECT Statements
- Example of ACCEPT Statement with AND Operator
- Example of REJECT Statement with OR Operator
- Further Examples of ACCEPT and REJECT Statements

Statements Usable with ACCEPT and REJECT

The statements ACCEPT and REJECT can be used in conjunction with the database access statements:

- READ
- FIND
- HISTOGRAM

Example of ACCEPT Statement

```
** Example Program 'ACCEPX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 CURR-CODE (1:1)

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (20) MYVIEW BY NAME WHERE CURR-CODE (1) = 'USD'

ACCEPT IF SALARY (1) >= 40000

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE SALARY (1)

END-READ

END
```

Page	1			97-08-13	17:26:33
:	NAME	CURRENT POSITION	ANNUAL SALARY		
ADKINSON		DBA	46700		
ADKINSON ADKINSON AFANASSI		MANAGER MANAGER	47000 47000 42800		
ALEXANDE ANDERSON	R	DBA DIRECTOR MANAGER	48000 50000		
ATHERTON ATHERTON		ANALYST MANAGER	43000 40000		

Logical Condition Criteria in ACCEPT/REJECT Statements

The statements ACCEPT and REJECT allow you to specify logical conditions in addition to those that were specified in WITH and WHERE clauses of the READ statement.

The logical condition criteria in the IF clause of an ACCEPT/REJECT statement are evaluated **after** the record has been selected and read.

Logical condition operators include the following (see Logical Condition Criteria in the Natural Statements documentation for more detailed information):

EQUAL	EQ	:=
NOT EQUAL TO	NE	7=
LESS THAN	LT	<
LESS EQUAL	LE	<=
GREATER THAN	GT	>
GREATER EQUAL	GE	>=

Logical condition criteria in ACCEPT/REJECT statements may also be connected with the Boolean operators AND, OR, and NOT. Moreover, parentheses may be used to indicate logical grouping; see the following examples.

Example of ACCEPT Statement with AND Operator

The following program illustrates the use of the Boolean operator AND in an ACCEPT statement.

```
** Example Program 'ACCEPX02'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 CURR-CODE (1:1)

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (20) MYVIEW BY NAME WHERE CURR-CODE (1) = 'USD'

ACCEPT IF SALARY (1) >= 40000

AND SALARY (1) <= 45000

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE SALARY (1)

END-READ

END
```

Example of REJECT Statement with OR Operator

The following program, which uses the Boolean operator OR in a REJECT statement, produces the same output as the ACCEPT statement in the example above, as the logical operators are reversed.

```
** Example Program 'ACCEPX03'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 CURR-CODE (1:1)

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (20) MYVIEW BY NAME WHERE CURR-CODE (1) = 'USD'

REJECT IF SALARY (1) < 40000

OR SALARY (1) > 45000

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE SALARY (1)

END-READ

END
```

Page 1			97-08-18	12:21:09
NAME	CURRENT POSITION	ANNUAL SALARY		
AFANASSIEV ATHERTON ATHERTON	DBA ANALYST MANAGER	42800 43000 40000		

Further Examples of ACCEPT and REJECT Statements

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- ACCEPX04
- ACCEPX05
- ACCEPX06

AT START/END OF DATA Statements

This document discusses the use of the statements AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA.

The following topics are covered:

- AT START OF DATA Statement
- AT END OF DATA Statement
- Example of AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA Statements
- Further Examples of AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA

AT START OF DATA Statement

The AT START OF DATA statement is used to specify any processing that is to be performed after the first of a set of records has been read in a database processing loop.

The AT START OF DATA statement must be placed within the processing loop.

If the AT START OF DATA processing produces any output, this will be output *before the first field value*. By default, this output is displayed left-justified on the page.

AT END OF DATA Statement

The AT END OF DATA statement is used to specify processing that is to be performed after all records for a database processing loop have been processed.

The AT END OF DATA statement must be placed within the processing loop.

If the AT END OF DATA processing produces any output, this will be output *after the last field value*. By default, this output is displayed left-justified on the page.

Example of AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA Statements

The following example program illustrates the use of the statements AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA. The system variable *TIME has been incorporated into the AT START OF DATA statement to display the time of day. The system function OLD has been incorporated into the AT END OF DATA statement to display the name of the last person selected.

```
** Example Program 'ATSTAX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 CITY

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 INCOME (1:1)

3 CURR-CODE

3 SALARY

3 BONUS (1:1)

END-DEFINE

WRITE TITLE 'XYZ EMPLOYEE ANNUAL SALARY AND BONUS REPORT' /

READ (3) MYVIEW BY CITY STARTING from 'E'

DISPLAY GIVE SYSTEM FUNCTIONS
```

```
NAME (AL=15) JOB-TITLE (AL=15) INCOME (1)
 AT START OF DATA
   WRITE 'RUN TIME:' *TIME /
 END-START
 AT END OF DATA
   WRITE / 'LAST PERSON SELECTED:' OLD (NAME) /
 END-ENDDATA
END-READ
AT END OF PAGE
 WRITE / 'AVERAGE SALARY:' AVER (SALARY(1))
END-ENDPAGE
END
```

The program produces the following output:

	XYZ EMPLOYEE	ANNUAL SALA	ARY AND BON	US REPORT
NAME	CURRENT POSITION		INCOME	
		CURRENCY CODE	ANNUAL SALARY	BONUS
RUN TIME: 11:				
DUYVERMAN	PROGRAMMER	USD	34000	0
PRATT	SALES PERSON	USD	38000	9000
MARKUSH	TRAINEE	USD	22000	0
LAST PERSON SI	ELECTED: MARKUSH			
AVERAGE SALAR	Y: 31333			

Further Examples of AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- ATENDX01
- ATSTAX02
- WRITEX09

Output of Data Output of Data

Output of Data

This document discusses various aspects of how you can control the format of an output report created with Natural, that is, the way in which the data are displayed.

The following topics are covered:

- Layout of an Output Page
- Statements DISPLAY and WRITE
- Index Notation for Multiple-Value Fields and Periodic Groups
- Page Titles and Page Breaks
- Column Headers
- Parameters to Influence the Output of Fields
- Edit Masks EM Parameter
- Vertical Displays

Layout of an Output Page

This document gives an overview of the statements that may be used to define a specific layout for a report.

The following topics are covered:

- Statements Influencing a Report Layout
- General Layout Example

Statements Influencing a Report Layout

The following statements have an impact on the layout of the report:

Statement	Function
WRITE TITLE	With this statement, you can specify a page title, that is, text to be output at the top of a page. By default, page titles are centered and not underlined.
WRITE TRAILER	With this statement, you can specify a page trailer, that is, text to be output at the bottom of a page. By default, the trailer lines are centered and not underlined.
AT TOP OF PAGE	With this statement, you can specify any processing that is to be performed whenever a new page of the report is started. Any output from this processing will be output below the page title.
AT END OF PAGE	With this statement, you can specify any processing that is to be performed whenever an end-of-page condition occurs. Any output from this processing will be output below any page trailer (as specified with the WRITE TRAILER statement).
AT START OF DATA	With this statement, you specify processing that is to be performed after the first record has been read in a database processing loop. Any output from this processing will be output before the first field value.
AT END OF DATA	With this statement, you specify processing that is to be performed after all records for a processing loop have been processed. Any output from this processing will be output immediately after the last field value.
DISPLAY / WRITE	With these statements, you control the format in which the field values that have been read are to be output. See section Statements DISPLAY and WRITE.

The relevance of the statements AT START OF DATA and AT END OF DATA for the output of data is described under Database Access, AT START/END OF DATA Statements. The other statements listed above are discussed in other parts of the section Output of Data.

General Layout Example

The following example program illustrates the general layout of an output page:

```
** Example Program 'OUTPUX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 EMP-VIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 BIRTH
END-DEFINE
*
```

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```
WRITE TITLE '******* Page Title ********
WRITE TRAILER '******** Page Trailer ********
AT TOP OF PAGE
 WRITE '==== Top of Page ====='
END-TOPPAGE
AT END OF PAGE
 WRITE '==== End of Page ====='
END-ENDPAGE
READ (10) EMP-VIEW BY NAME
 DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME BIRTH (EM=YYYY-MM-DD)
 AT START OF DATA
   WRITE '>>>> Start of Data >>>>'
 END-START
 AT END OF DATA
   WRITE '<<<< End of Data <<<<'
 END-ENDDATA
END-READ
END
```

****	***** Page Title ****	****
==== Top of Pag	ge ====	
NAME	FIRST-NAME	DATE
		OF
		BIRTH
>>>> Start of I	Data >>>>	
ABELLAN	KEPA	1961-04-08
ACHIESON	ROBERT	1963-12-24
ADAM	SIMONE	1952-01-30
ADKINSON	JEFF	1951-06-15
ADKINSON	PHYLLIS	1956-09-17
ADKINSON	HAZEL	1954-03-19
ADKINSON	DAVID	1946-10-12
ADKINSON	CHARLIE	1950-03-02
ADKINSON	MARTHA	1970-01-01
ADKINSON	TIMMIE	1970-03-03
<<<< End of Dat	ta <<<<	
****	**** Page Trailer ***	* * * * * *
==== End of Pag		

Statements DISPLAY and WRITE

This document describes how to use the statements DISPLAY and WRITE to output data and control the format in which information is output.

The following topics are covered:

- DISPLAY Statement
- WRITE Statement
- Example of DISPLAY Statement
- Example of WRITE Statement
- Column Spacing SF Parameter and nX Notation
- Tab Setting *n*T Notation
- Line Advance / Notation
- Example of Line Advance in DISPLAY Statement
- Example of Line Advance in WRITE Statement
- Further Examples of DISPLAY and WRITE Statements

DISPLAY Statement

The DISPLAY statement produces output in column format; that is, the values for one field are output in a column underneath one another. If multiple fields are output, that is, if multiple columns are produced, these columns are output next to one another horizontally.

The order in which fields are displayed is determined by the sequence in which you specify the field names in the DISPLAY statement.

The DISPLAY statement in the following program displays for each person first the personnel number, then the name and then the job title:

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 NAME
2 BIRTH
2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH
DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID NAME JOB-TITLE
END-READ
END
```

```
      Page
      1
      99-01-22
      11:31:01

      PERSONNEL NAME CURRENT
      ID POSITION
      10
      10
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      10
      10
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```

To change the order of the columns that appear in the output report, simply reorder the field names in the DISPLAY statement. For example, if you prefer to list employee names first, then job titles followed by personnel numbers, the appropriate DISPLAY statement would be:

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 NAME
2 BIRTH
2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH
DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE PERSONNEL-ID
END-READ
END
```

Page 1			99-01-22	11:32:06
NAME	CURRENT POSITION	PERSONNEL ID		
GARRET TAILOR PIETSCH	TYPIST WAREHOUSEMAN SECRETARY	30020013 30016112 20017600		

A header is output above each column. Various ways to influence this header are described in the document Column Headers.

WRITE Statement

The WRITE statement is used to produce output in free format (that is, not in columns). In contrast to the DISPLAY statement, the following applies to the WRITE statement:

- If necessary, it automatically creates a line advance; that is, a field or text element that does not fit onto the current output line, is automatically output in the next line.
- It does not produce any headers.
- The values of a multiple-value field are output next to one another horizontally, and not underneath one another.

The two example programs shown below illustrate the basic differences between the DISPLAY statement and the WRITE statement.

You can also use the two statements in combination with one another, as described later in the document Vertical Displays, Combining DISPLAY and WRITE.

Example of DISPLAY Statement

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX03'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 SALARY (1:3)
END-DEFINE
```

```
READ (2) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME SALARY (1:3)
END-READ
END
```

Page	1			97-08-14	11:44:00
	NAME	FIRST-NAME	ANNUAL SALARY		
JONES		VIRGINIA	46000		
OONED		VIRGINIII	42300 39300		
JONES		MARSHA	50000 46000		
			42700		

Example of WRITE Statement

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 SALARY (1:3)
END-DEFINE
READ (2) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
WRITE NAME FIRST-NAME SALARY (1:3)
END-READ
END
```

Page	1			97-08	-14 11:45:00
JONES		VIRGINIA	46000	42300	39300
JONES		MARSHA	50000	46000	42700

Column Spacing - SF Parameter and nX Notation

By default, the columns output with a DISPLAY statement are separated from one another by one space.

With the session parameter SF, you can specify the default number of spaces to be inserted between columns output with a DISPLAY statement. You can set the number of spaces to any value from 1 to 30.

The parameter can be specified with a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or with a DISPLAY statement at statement level, but not at field level.

With the nX notation in the DISPLAY statement, you can specify the number of spaces (n) to be inserted between two columns. An nX notation overrides the specification made with the SF parameter.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX04'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE
FORMAT SF=3
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH
DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID NAME 5X JOB-TITLE
END-READ
END
```

The above example program produces the following output, where the first two columns are separated by 3 spaces due to the SF parameter in the FORMAT statement, while the second and third columns are separated by 5 spaces due to the notation "5X" in the DISPLAY statement:

Page	1		99-01-22	11:33:40
PERSONNEL ID	NAME	CURRENT POSITION		
30020013 30016112 20017600	GARRET TAILOR PIETSCH	TYPIST WAREHOUSEMAN SECRETARY		

The nX notation is also available with the WRITE statement to insert spaces between individual output elements:

```
WRITE PERSONNEL-ID 5X NAME 3X JOB-TITLE
```

With the above statement, 5 spaces will be inserted between the fields PERSONNEL-ID and NAME, and 3 spaces between NAME and JOB-TITLE.

Tab Setting - *n***T Notation**

With the nT notation, which is available with the DISPLAY and the WRITE statement, you can specify the position where an output element is to be output.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX05'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
DISPLAY 5T NAME 30T FIRST-NAME
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output, where the field NAME is output starting in the 5th position (counted from the left margin of the page), and the field FIRST-NAME starting in the 30th position:

Page	1		97-08-21	11:46:01
	NAME	FIRST-NAME		
	JONES JONES JONES	VIRGINIA MARSHA ROBERT		

Line Advance - Slash Notation

With a slash "/" in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement, you cause a line advance.

- In a DISPLAY statement, a slash causes a line advance between fields and within text.
- In a WRITE statement, a slash causes a line advance only when placed *between fields*; within text, it is treated like an ordinary text character.

When placed between fields, the slash must have a blank on either side.

For multiple line advances, you specify multiple slashes.

Example of Line Advance in DISPLAY Statement

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX06'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 DEPARTMENT

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME / FIRST-NAME 'DEPART-/MENT' DEPARTMENT

END-READ

END
```

The above DISPLAY statement produces a line advance after each value of the field NAME and within the text "DEPART-MENT":

Page	1			97-08-14	11:45:12
	NAME FIRST-NAME	DEPART- MENT			
JONE VIRG	S SINIA	SALE			
JONE MARS		MGMT			
JONE ROBE	S	TECH			

Example of Line Advance in WRITE Statement

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX02'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 DEPARTMENT

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

WRITE NAME / FIRST-NAME 'DEPART-/MENT' DEPARTMENT //

END-READ

END
```

The above WRITE statement produces a line advance after each value of the field NAME, and a double line advance after each value of the field DEPARTMENT, but none within the text "DEPART-/MENT":

Page	1		97-08-14	11:45:12
JONES VIRGINIA		DEPART-/MENT SALE		
JONES MARSHA		DEPART-/MENT MGMT		
JONES ROBERT		DEPART-/MENT TECH		

Further Examples of DISPLAY and WRITE Statements

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- DISPLX13
- WRITEX08
- DISPLX14
- WRITEX09
- DISPLX21

Index Notation for Multiple-Value Fields and Periodic Groups

This document describes how you can use the index notation (n:n) to specify how many values of a multiple-value field or how many occurrences of a periodic group are to be output.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Index Notation
- Example of Index Notation in DISPLAY Statement
- Example of Index Notation in WRITE Statement

Use of Index Notation

With the index notation (n:n) you can specify how many values of a multiple-value field or how many occurrences of a periodic group are to be output.

For example, the field INCOME in the DDM EMPLOYEES is a periodic group which keeps a record of the annual incomes of an employee for each year he/she has been with the company.

These annual incomes are maintained in chronological order. The income of the most recent year is in occurrence "1".

If you wanted to have the annual incomes of an employee for the last three years displayed - that is, occurrences "1" to "3" - you would specify the notation "(1:3)" after the field name in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement (as shown in the following example program).

Example of Index Notation in DISPLAY Statement

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX07'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 INCOME (1:3)

3 CURR-CODE

3 SALARY

3 BONUS (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH

DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID NAME INCOME (1:3)

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Note that a DISPLAY statement outputs multiple values of a multiple-value field underneath one another:

Page	1					99-01-22	11:36:58
PERSONNEL ID		NAME		INCOME			
			CURRENCY CODE	ANNUAL SALARY	BONUS		
						-	
30020013	GARRET		UKL	4200		0	
			UKL	4150		0	
				0		0	
30016112	TAILOR		UKL	7450		0	
			UKL	7350		0	
			UKL	6700		0	
20017600	PIETSCH		USD	22000		0	
			USD	20200		0	
			USD	18700		0	

As a WRITE statement displays multiple values horizontally instead of vertically, this may cause a line overflow and a - possibly undesired - line advance.

If you use only a single field within a periodic group (for example, SALARY) instead of the entire periodic group, and if you also insert a slash "/" to cause a line advance (as shown in the following example between NAME and JOB-TITLE), the report format becomes manageable.

Example of Index Notation in WRITE Statement

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX03'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 JOB-TITLE

2 SALARY (1:3)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH

WRITE PERSONNEL-ID NAME / JOB-TITLE SALARY (1:3)

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Page 1				99-01-22	11:37:18
30020013 GARRET TYPIST	4200	4150	0		
30016112 TAILOR WAREHOUSEMAN	7450	7350	6700		
20017600 PIETSCH SECRETARY	22000	20200	18700		

Page Titles and Page Breaks

This document describes various ways of controlling page breaks in a report and the output of page titles at the top of each report page.

The following topics are covered:

- Default Page Title
- Suppress Page Title NOTITLE Option
- Define Your Own Page Title WRITE TITLE Statement
- Logical Page and Physical Page
- Page Size PS Parameter
- Page Advance EJ Parameter
- Page Advance EJECT and NEWPAGE Statements
- Page Trailer WRITE TRAILER Statement
- AT TOP OF PAGE Statement
- AT END OF PAGE Statement
- Further Examples

Default Page Title

For each page output via a DISPLAY or WRITE statement, Natural automatically generates a single default title line. This title line contains the page number, the date and the time of day.

```
WRITE 'HELLO'
END
```

The above program produces the following output with default page title:

```
Page 1 97-08-14 18:27:35
HELLO
```

Suppress Page Title - NOTITLE Option

If you wish your report to be output without page titles, you add the keyword NOTITLE to the DISPLAY or WRITE statement.

```
WRITE NOTITLE 'HELLO' END
```

The above program produces the following output without page title:

HELLO

Define Your Own Page Title - WRITE TITLE Statement

If you wish a page title of your own to be output instead of the Natural default page title, you use the statement WRITE TITLE.

The following topics are covered below:

- Specifying Text for Your Title
- Specifying Empty Lines after the Title
- Title Justification and/or Underlining

Specifying Text for Your Title

With the statement WRITE TITLE, you specify the text for your title (in apostrophes).

```
WRITE TITLE 'THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE' WRITE 'HELLO' END
```

```
THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE
HELLO
```

Specifying Empty Lines after the Title

With the SKIP option of the WRITE TITLE statement, you can specify the number of empty lines to be output immediately below the title line. After the keyword SKIP, you specify the number of empty lines to be inserted.

```
WRITE TITLE 'THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE' SKIP 2 WRITE 'HELLO' END
```

```
THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE
HELLO
```

SKIP is not only available as part of the WRITE TITLE statement, but also as a stand-alone statement.

Title Justification and/or Underlining

By default, the page title is centered on the page and not underlined.

The WRITE TITLE statement provides the following options which can be used independent of each other:

Option	Effect
LEFT JUSTIFIED	Causes the title to be displayed left-justified.
	Causes the title to be displayed underlined. The underlining runs the width of the line size (see also Natural profile and session parameter LS).
UNDERLINED	By default, titles are underlined with a hyphen (-). However, with the UC session parameter you can specify another character to be used as underlining character (see Underlining Character for Titles and Headers).

The following example shows the effect of the LEFT JUSTIFIED and UNDERLINED options:

```
WRITE TITLE LEFT JUSTIFIED UNDERLINED 'THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE' SKIP 2 WRITE 'HELLO' END
```

```
THIS IS MY PAGE TITLE

HELLO
```

The WRITE TITLE statement is executed whenever a new page is initiated for the report.

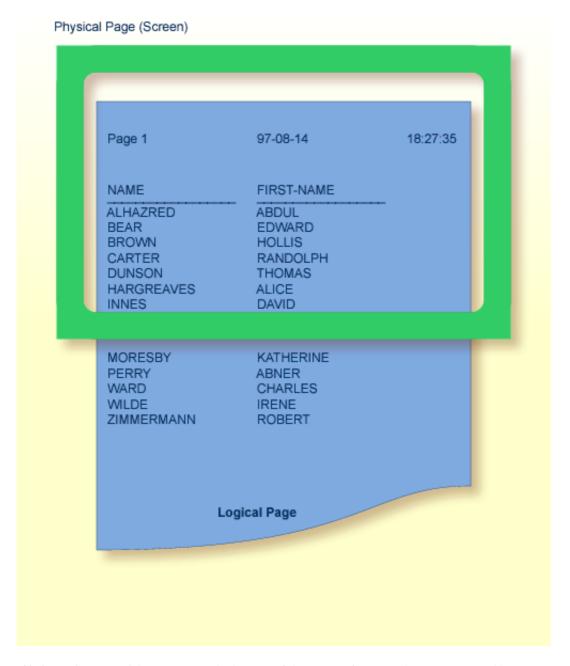
Logical Page and Physical Page

A logical page is the output produced by a Natural program.

A *physical page* is your terminal screen on which the output is displayed; or it may be the piece of paper on which the output is printed.

The size of the logical page is determined by the number of lines output by the Natural program.

If more lines are output than fit onto one screen, the logical page will exceed the physical screen, and the remaining lines will be displayed on the next screen.



If information you wish to appear at the bottom of the screen (for example, output created by a WRITE TRAILER or AT END OF PAGE statement) is output on the next screen instead, reduce the logical page size accordingly (with the session parameter PS, which is discussed below).

Page Size - PS Parameter

With the parameter PS, you determine the maximum number of lines per (logical) page for a report.

When the number of lines specified with the PS parameter is reached, a page advance occurs (unless page advance is controlled with a NEWPAGE or EJECT statement; see Page Advance Controlled by EJ Parameter below).

The PS parameter can be set either at session level with the system command GLOBALS, or within a program with the following statements:

- at report level:
 - O FORMAT PS=nn
- at statement level:
 - O DISPLAY (PS=nn)
 - O WRITE (PS=nn)
 - O WRITE TITLE (PS=nn)
 - O WRITE TRAILER (PS=nn)
 - O INPUT (PS=nn)

Page Advance

A page advance can be triggered by one of the following methods:

- Page Advance Controlled by EJ Parameter
- Page Advance Controlled by EJECT or NEWPAGE Statements
- Eject/New Page when less than *n* Line Left

These methods are discussed below.

Page Advance Controlled by EJ Parameter

With the session parameter EJ, you determine whether page ejects are to be performed or not. By default, EJ=ON applies, which means that page ejects will be performed as specified.

If you specify EJ=OFF, page break information will be ignored. This may be useful to save paper during test runs where page ejects are not needed.

The EJ parameter can be set at session level with the system command GLOBALS; for example:

GLOBALS EJ=OFF

The EJ parameter setting is overriden by the EJECT statement.

Page Advance Controlled by EJECT or NEWPAGE Statements

Page Advance without Title/Header on Next Page

The EJECT statement causes a page advance *without* a title or header line being generated on the next page. A new physical page is started *without* any top-of-page or end-of-page processing being performed (for example, no WRITE TRAILER or AT END OF PAGE, WRITE TITLE, AT TOP OF PAGE or *PAGE-NUMBER processing).

The EJECT statement overrides the EJ parameter setting.

Page Advance with End/Top-of-Page Processing

The NEWPAGE statement causes a page advance *with* associated end-of-page and top-of-page processing. A trailer line will be displayed, if specified. A title line, either default or user-specified, will be displayed on the new page (unless the NOTITLE option has been specified in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement).

If the NEWPAGE statement is not used, page advance is automatically controlled by the setting of the PS parameter; see Page Size - PS Parameter above).

Eject/New Page when less than *n* Line Left

Both the NEWPAGE statement and the EJECT statement provide a WHEN LESS THAN nLINES LEFT option. With this option, you specify a number of lines n. The NEWPAGE/EJECT statement will then be executed if - at the time the statement is processed - less than n lines are available on the current page.

Example:

```
FORMAT PS=55
...
NEWPAGE WHEN LESS THAN 7 LINES LEFT
```

In this example, the page size is set to 55 lines.

If only 6 or less lines are left on the current page at the time when the NEWPAGE statement is processed, the NEWPAGE statement is executed and a page advance occurs.

If 7 or more lines are left, the NEWPAGE statement is not executed and no page advance occurs; the page advance then occurs depending on the PS parameter, that is, after 55 lines.

New Page with Title

The NEWPAGE statement also provides a WITH TITLE option. If this option is not used, a default title will appear at the top of the new page or a WRITE TITLE statement or NOTITLE clause will be executed.

The WITH TITLE option of the NEWPAGE statement allows you to override these with a title of your own choice. The syntax of the WITH TITLE option is the same as for the WRITE TITLE statement.

Example:

```
NEWPAGE WITH TITLE LEFT JUSTIFIED 'PEOPLE LIVING IN BOSTON:'
```

The following program illustrates the use of the PS parameter and the NEWPAGE statement. Moreover, the system variable *PAGE-NUMBER is used to display the current page number.

```
** Example Program 'NEWPAX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 CITY

2 DEPT

END-DEFINE
FORMAT PS=20
READ (5) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'M'
DISPLAY NAME 'DEPT' DEPT 'LOCATION' CITY
AT BREAK OF CITY

NEWPAGE WITH TITLE LEFT JUSTIFIED
 'EMPLOYEES BY CITY - PAGE:' *PAGE-NUMBER
END-BREAK
END-READ
END
```

Note the position of the page breaks and the title line printed on the new page:

Page	1			97-08-19	18:27:35
	NAME	DEPT	LOCATION		
FICKEN		TECH10 MAD	DISON		
KELLOGO ALEXANI		TECH10 MAD SALE20 MAD			

```
EMPLOYEES BY CITY - PAGE: 2

NAME DEPT LOCATION

DE JUAN SALE03 MADRID
DE LA MADRID PROD01 MADRID
```

Page Trailer - WRITE TRAILER Statement

- Specifying a Page Trailer
- Considering Logical Page Size
- Page Trailer Justification and/or Underlining

Specifying a Page Trailer

The WRITE TRAILER statement is used to output text (in apostrophes) at the bottom of a page.

```
WRITE TRAILER 'THIS IS THE END OF THE PAGE'
```

The statement is executed when an end-of-page condition is detected, or as a result of a SKIP or NEWPAGE statement.

Considering Logical Page Size

As the end-of-page condition is checked only *after* an entire DISPLAY or WRITE statement has been processed, it may occur that the logical page size (that is, the number of lines output by a DISPLAY or WRITE statement) causes the physical size of the output page to be exceeded before the WRITE TRAILER statement is executed.

To ensure that a page trailer actually appears at the bottom of a physical page, you should set the logical page size (with the PS session parameter) to a value less than the physical page size.

Page Trailer Justification and/or Underlining

By default, the page trailer is displayed centered on the page and not underlined.

The WRITE TRAILER statement provides the following options which can be used independent of each other:

Option	Effect
LEFT JUSTIFIED	Causes the page trailer to be displayed left-justified.
	Causes the page trailer to be displayed underlined. The underlining runs the width of the line size (see also Natural profile and session parameter LS).
UNDERLINED	By default, titles are underlined with a hyphen (-). However, with the UC session parameter you can specify another character to be used as underlining character (see Underlining Character for Titles and Headers).

The following example shows the use of the LEFT JUSTIFIED and UNDERLINED options of the WRITE TRAILER statement:

WRITE TRAILER LEFT JUSTIFIED UNDERLINED 'THIS IS THE END OF THE PAGE'

AT TOP OF PAGE Statement

The AT TOP OF PAGE statement is used to specify any processing that is to be performed whenever a new page of the report is started.

If the AT TOP OF PAGE processing produces any output, this will be output below the page title (with a skipped line in between).

By default, this output is displayed left-justified on the page.

AT END OF PAGE Statement

The AT END OF PAGE statement is used to specify any processing that is to be performed whenever an end-of-page condition occurs.

If the AT END OF PAGE processing produces any output, this will be output after any page trailer (as specified with the WRITE TRAILER statement).

By default, this output is displayed left-justified on the page.

The same considerations described above for page trailers regarding physical and logical page sizes and the number of lines output by a DISPLAY or WRITE statement also apply to AT END OF PAGE output.

Further Examples

Examples of WRITE TITLE, WRITE TRAILER, AT TOP OF PAGE, AT END OF PAGE and SKIP Statements

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- WTITLX01
- DISPLX21
- ATENPX01
- ATTOPX01
- SKIPX01
- SKIPX02

Example of NOTITLE Option

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• DISPLX20

Example of NEWPAGE and EJECT Statements

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• NEWPAX02

Column Headers Column Headers

Column Headers

This document describes various ways of controlling the display of column headers produced by a DISPLAY statement.

- Default Column Headers
- Suppress Default Column Headers NOHDR Option
- Define Your Own Column Headers
- Combining NOTITLE and NOHDR
- Centering of Column Headers HC Parameter
- Width of Column Headers HW Parameter
- Filler Characters for Headers Parameters FC and GC
- Underlining Character for Titles and Headers UC Parameter
- Suppressing Column Headers Slash Notation
- Further Examples of Column Headers

Default Column Headers

By default, each database field output with a DISPLAY statement is displayed with a default column header (which is defined for the field in the DDM).

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 PERSONNEL-ID
2 NAME
2 BIRTH
2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH
DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID NAME JOB-TITLE
END-READ
END
```

The above example program uses default headers and produces the following output:

Suppress Default Column Headers - NOHDR Option

If you wish your report to be output without column headers, add the keyword NOHDR to the DISPLAY statement.

DISPLAY NOHDR PERSONNEL-ID NAME JOB-TITLE

Define Your Own Column Headers

If you wish column headers of your own to be output instead of the default headers, you specify 'text' (in apostrophes) immediately before a field, text being the header to be used for the field.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX08'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 JOB-TITLE
END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH

DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID

'EMPLOYEE' NAME
'POSITION' JOB-TITLE

END-READ
END
```

The above program contains the header "EMPLOYEE" for the field NAME, and the header "POSITION" for the field JOB-TITLE; for the field PERSONNEL-ID, the default header is used. The program produces the following output:

Combining NOTITLE and NOHDR

To create a report that has neither page title nor column headers, you specify the NOTITLE and NOHDR options together in the following order:

```
DISPLAY NOTITLE NOHDR PERSONNEL-ID NAME JOB-TITLE
```

Centering of Column Headers - HC Parameter

By default, column headers are centered above the columns. With the HC parameter, you can influence the placement of column headers.

If you specify

HC=L headers will be left-justified.

HC=R headers will be right-justified.

HC=C headers will be centered.

The HC parameter can be used in a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or it can be used in a DISPLAY statement at both statement level and field level.

```
DISPLAY (HC=L) PERSONNEL-ID NAME JOB-TITLE
```

Width of Column Headers - HW Parameter

With the HW parameter, you determine the width of a column output with a DISPLAY statement.

If you specify

HW=ON the width of a DISPLAY column is determined by either the length of the header text or the length of the field, whichever is longer. This also applies by default.

the width of a DISPLAY column is determined only by the length of the field. However, **HW=OFF** only applies to DISPLAY statements which do *not* create headers; that is, either a first
DISPLAY statement with NOHDR option or a subsequent DISPLAY statement.

The HW parameter can be used in a FORMAT statement to apply to the entire report, or it can be used in a DISPLAY statement at both statement level and field level.

Filler Characters for Headers - Parameters FC and GC

With the FC parameter, you specify the *filler character* which will appear on either side of a *header* produced by a DISPLAY statement across the full column width if the column width is determined by the field length and not by the header (see HW parameter above); otherwise FC will be ignored.

When a group of fields or a periodic group is output via a DISPLAY statement, a *group header* is displayed across all field columns that belong to that group above the headers for the individual fields within the group. With the GC parameter, you can specify the *filler character* which will appear on either side of such a group header.

While the FC parameter applies to the headers of individual fields, the GC parameter applies to the headers for groups of fields.

The parameters FC and GC can be specified in a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or they can be specified in a DISPLAY statement at both statement level and field level.

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 INCOME (1:1)

3 CURR-CODE

3 SALARY

3 BONUS (1:1)
END-DEFINE
FORMAT FC=* GC=$
```

```
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME
DISPLAY NAME (FC==) INCOME (1)
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output:

Page 1				97-08-19	17:37:27
======NAME======	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$	\$\$\$\$INCOME\$	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$		
	CURRENCY CODE	**ANNUAL** SALARY	**BONUS***		
ABELLAN ACHIESON	PTA UKL	1450000 10500	0		
ADAM	FRA	159980	23000		

Underlining Character for Titles and Headers - UC Parameter

By default, titles and headers are underlined with a hyphen (-).

With the UC parameter, you can specify another character to be used as underlining character.

The UC parameter can be specified in a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or it can be specified in a DISPLAY statement at both statement level and field level.

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX02'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 PERSONNEL-ID

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 JOB-TITLE

END-DEFINE

FORMAT UC==

WRITE TITLE LEFT JUSTIFIED UNDERLINED 'EMPLOYEES REPORT' SKIP 1

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY BIRTH

DISPLAY PERSONNEL-ID (UC=*) NAME JOB-TITLE

END-READ

END
```

In the above program, the UC parameter is specified at program level and at field level: the underlining character specified with the FORMAT statement (=) applies for the whole report - except for the field PERSONNEL-ID, for which a different underlining character (*) is specified. The program produces the following output:

EMPLOYEES REPORT							
PERSONNEL ID	NAME	CURRENT POSITION					
******		=== ===================================					
30020013	GARRET	TYPIST					
30016112	TAILOR	WAREHOUSEMAN					
20017600	PIETSCH	SECRETARY					

Suppressing Column Headers - Slash Notation

With the notation apostrophe-slash-apostrophe ('/'), you can suppress default column headers for individual fields displayed with a DISPLAY statement. While the NOHDR option suppresses the headers of all columns, the notation '/' can be used to suppress the header for an individual column.

The apostrophe-slash-apostrophe ('/') notation is specified in the DISPLAY statement immediately before the name of the field for which the column header is to be suppressed.

Compare the following two examples:

Example 1:

```
DISPLAY NAME PERSONNEL-ID JOB-TITLE
```

In this case, the default column headers of all three fields will be displayed:

Page 1		97-04-19 17:37:27
NAME	PERSONNEL CURRENT	
	ID POSITION	
ABELLAN	60008339 MAQUINISTA	
ACHIESON	30000231 DATA BASE ADMINISTRA	ATOR
ADAM	50005800 CHEF DE SERVICE	
ADKINSON	20008800 PROGRAMMER	
ADKINSON	20009800 DBA	
ADKINSON	20011000 SALES PERSON	

Example 2:

```
DISPLAY '/' NAME PERSONNEL-ID JOB-TITLE
```

In this case, the notation '/' causes the column header for the field NAME to be suppressed:

Page	1			97-04-19	17:38:45
		PERSONNEL ID	CURRENT POSITION		
ABELLAN ACHIESON		60008339 30000231	MAQUINISTA DATA BASE ADMINISTRATOR		
ADAM ADKINSON ADKINSON		50005800 20008800 20009800	CHEF DE SERVICE PROGRAMMER DBA		
ADKINSON		20011000	SALES PERSON		

Further Examples of Column Headers

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- DISPLX15
- DISPLX16

Parameters to Influence the Output of Fields

This document discusses the use of those Natural profile and/or session parameters which you can use to control the output format of fields.

The following topics are covered:

- Overview of Field-Output-Relevant Parameters
- Leading Characters LC Parameter
- Insertion Characters IC Parameter
- Trailing Characters TC Parameter
- Output Length AL and NL Parameters
- Sign Position SG Parameter
- Identical Suppress IS Parameter
- Zero Printing ZP Parameter
- Empty Line Suppression ES Parameter
- Further Examples of Field-Output-Relevant Parameters

Overview of Field-Output-Relevant Parameters

Natural provides several profile and/or session parameters you can use to control the format in which fields are output:

Parameter	Function
LC, IC and TC	With these session parameters, you can specify characters that are to be displayed before or after a field or before a field value.
AL and NL	With these session parameters, you can increase or reduce the output length of fields.
SG	With this session parameter, you can determine whether negative values are to be displayed with or without a minus sign.
IS	With this session parameter, you can suppress the display of subsequent identical field values.
ZP	With this profile and session parameter, you can determine whether field values of "0" are to be displayed or not.
ES	With this session parameter, you can suppress the display of empty lines generated by a DISPLAY or WRITE statement.

These parameters are discussed below.

Leading Characters - LC Parameter

With the session parameter LC, you can specify leading characters that are to be displayed immediately *before a field* that is output with a DISPLAY statement. The width of the output column is enlarged accordingly. You can specify 1 to 10 characters.

By default, values are displayed left-justified in alphanumeric fields and right-justified in numeric fields. (These defaults can be changed with the AD parameter; see the Parameter Reference documentation). When a leading character is specified for an alphanumeric field, the character is therefore displayed immediately before the field value; for a numeric field, a number of spaces may occur between the leading character and the field value.

The LC parameter can be used with the following statements:

- FORMAT
- DISPLAY

It can be set at statement level and at field level.

Insertion Characters - IC Parameter

With the session parameter IC, you specify the characters to be inserted in the column immediately *preceding the value of a field* that is output with a DISPLAY statement. You can specify 1 to 10 characters.

For a numeric field, the insertion characters will be placed immediately before the first significant digit that is output, with no intervening spaces between the specified character and the field value. For alphanumeric fields, the effect of the IC parameter is the same as that of the LC parameter.

The parameters LC and IC cannot both be applied to one field.

The IC parameter can be used with the following statements:

- FORMAT
- DISPLAY

It can be set at statement level and at field level.

Trailing Characters - TC Parameter

With the session parameter TC, you can specify trailing characters that are to be displayed immediately *to the right of a field* that is output with a DISPLAY statement. The width of the output column is enlarged accordingly. You can specify 1 to 10 characters.

The TC parameter can be used with the following statements:

- FORMAT
- DISPLAY

It can be set at statement level and at field level.

Output Length - AL and NL Parameters

With the session parameter AL, you can specify the *output length* for an alphanumeric field; with the NL parameter, you can specify the *output length* for a numeric field. This determines the length of a field as it will be output, which may be shorter or longer than the actual length of the field (as defined in the DDM for a database field, or in the DEFINE DATA statement for a user-defined variable).

Both parameters can be used with the following statements:

- FORMAT
- DISPLAY
- WRITE

• INPUT

They can be set at statement level and at field level.

Note:

If an edit mask is specified, it overrides an NL or AL specification. Edit masks are described in Edit Masks - EM Parameter.

Sign Position - SG Parameter

With the session parameter SG, you can determine whether or not a sign position is to be allocated for numeric fields.

- By default, SG=ON applies, which means that a sign position is allocated for numeric fields.
- If you specify SG=OFF, negative values in numeric fields will be output without a minus sign (-).

The SG parameter can be used with the following statements:

- FORMAT
- DISPLAY
- WRITE
- INPUT

It can be set at both statement level and field level.

Note

If an edit mask is specified, it overrides an SG specification. Edit masks are described in Edit Masks - EM Parameter.

Example Program without Parameters

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX03'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 SALARY (1:1)

2 BONUS (1:1,1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (5) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME

SALARY (1:1) BONUS (1:1,1:1)

END-READ
```

The above program contains no parameter settings and produces the following output:

Page	1			97-08-15	17:25:19
	NAME	FIRST-NAME	ANNUAL SALARY	BONUS	
JONES		VIRGINIA	46000	9000	
JONES JONES		MARSHA ROBERT	50000 31000	0 0	
JONES		LILLY	24000	0	
JONES		EDWARD	37600	0	

Example Program with Parameters AL, NL, LC, IC and TC

In this example, the session parameters AL, NL, LC, IC and TC are used.

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX04'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 SALARY (1:1)

2 BONUS (1:1,1:1)

END-DEFINE

FORMAT AL=10 NL=6

READ (5) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME (LC=*) FIRST-NAME (TC=*)

SALARY (1:1)(IC=$) BONUS (1:1,1:1)(LC=>)

END-READ

END
```

The above program produces the following output. Compare the layout of this output with that of the previous program to see the effect of the individual parameters:

Page	1						97-08-19	17:26
NAME	FIRST-NAM	Έ 	ANNUAL SALARY	B(ONUS			
*JONES	VIRGINIA	*	\$46000	>	9000			
*JONES	MARSHA	*	\$50000	>	0			
*JONES	ROBERT	*	\$31000	>	0			
*JONES	LILLY	*	\$24000	>	0			
*JONES	EDWARD	*	\$37600	>	0			

As you can see in the above example, any output length you specify with the AL or NL parameter does not include any characters specified with the LC, IC and TC parameters: the width of the NAME column, for example, is 11 characters - 10 for the field value (AL=10) plus 1 leading character.

The width of the SALARY and BONUS columns is 8 characters - 6 for the field value (NL=6), plus 1 leading/inserted character, plus 1 sign position (because SG=ON applies).

Identical Suppress - IS Parameter

With the session parameter IS, you can suppress the display of identical information in successive lines created by a WRITE or DISPLAY statement.

- By default, IS=OFF applies, which means that identical field values will be displayed.
- If IS=ON is specified, a value which is identical to the previous value of that field will not be displayed.

The IS parameter can be specified

- with a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or
- in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement at both statement level and field level.

The effect of the parameter IS=ON can be suspended for one record by using the statement SUSPEND IDENTICAL SUPPRESS; see the Natural Statements documentation for details.

Compare the output of the following two example programs to see the effect of the IS parameter. In the second one, the display of identical values in the NAME field is suppressed.

Example Program without IS Parameter

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX05'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME

END-READ
END
```

Page	1		97-08-18	17:25:19
	NAME	FIRST-NAME		
JONES		VIRGINIA		
JONES JONES		MARSHA ROBERT		

Example Program with IS Parameter

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX06'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

END-DEFINE

FORMAT IS=ON

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME

END-READ

END
```

Zero Printing - ZP Parameter

With the profile and session parameter ZP, you determine how a field value of zero is to be displayed.

- By default, ZP=ON applies, which means that one "0" (for numeric fields) or all zeros (for time fields) will be displayed for each field value that is zero.
- If you specify ZP=OFF, the display of each field value which is zero will be suppressed.

The ZP parameter can be specified

- with a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or
- in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement at both statement level and field level.

Compare the output of the following two example programs to see the effect of the parameters ZP and ES.

Empty Line Suppression - ES Parameter

With the session parameter ES, you can suppress the output of empty lines created by a DISPLAY or WRITE statement.

- By default, ES=OFF applies, which means that lines containing all blank values will be displayed.
- If ES=ON is specified, a line resulting from a DISPLAY or WRITE statement which contains all blank values will not be displayed. This is particularly useful when displaying multiple-value fields or fields which are part of a periodic group if a large number of empty lines are likely to be produced.

The ES parameter can be specified

- with a FORMAT statement to apply to the whole report, or
- in a DISPLAY or WRITE statement at statement level.

Note:

To achieve empty suppression for numeric values, in addition to ES=ON the parameter ZP=OFF must also be set for the fields concerned in order to have null values turned into blanks and thus not output either.

Compare the output of the following two example programs to see the effect of the parameters ZP and ES.

Example Program without Parameters ZP and ES

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX07'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 BONUS (1:2,1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (4) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME BONUS (1:2,1:1)

END-READ

END
```

Page 1			97-08-18	17:26:19
NAME	FIRST-NAME	BONUS		
JONES	VIRGINIA	9000		
JONES	MARSHA	6750 0		
JONES	ROBERT	0		
JONES	LILLY	0 0 0		

Example Program with Parameters ZP and ES

```
** Example Program 'FORMAX08'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 BONUS (1:2,1:1)

END-DEFINE

FORMAT ES=ON

READ (4) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

DISPLAY NAME FIRST-NAME BONUS (1:2,1:1)(ZP=OFF)

END-READ

END
```

Page	1			97-08-18	17:27:12
	NAME	FIRST-NAME	BONUS		
JONES		VIRGINIA	9000 6750		
JONES JONES JONES		MARSHA ROBERT LILLY			

Further Examples of Field-Output-Relevant Parameters

For further examples of the parameters LC, IC, TC, AL, NL, IS, ZP and ES, and the SUSPEND IDENTICAL SUPPRESS statement, see the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- DISPLX17
- DISPLX18
- DISPLX19
- SUSPEX01
- SUSPEX02
- COMPRX03.

Edit Masks - EM Parameter

This document describes how you can specify an edit mask for an alphanumeric or numeric field.

The following topics are covered below:

- Use of EM Parameter
- Edit Masks for Numeric Fields
- Edit Masks for Alphanumeric Fields
- Length of Fields
- Edit Masks for Date and Time Fields
- Examples of Edit Masks
- Further Examples of Edit Masks

Use of EM Parameter

With the session parameter EM you can specify an edit mask for an alphanumeric or numeric field, that is, determine character by character the format in which the field values are to be output.

Example:

```
DISPLAY NAME (EM=X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X)
```

In this example, each "X" represents one character of an alphanumeric field value to be displayed, and each "^" represents a blank. If displayed via the DISPLAY statement, the name "JOHNSON" would appear as follows:

JOHNSON

You can specify the session parameter EM

- at report level (in a FORMAT statement),
- at statement level (in a DISPLAY, WRITE, INPUT, MOVE EDITED or PRINT statement) or
- at field level (in a DISPLAY, WRITE or INPUT statement).

An edit mask specified with the session parameter EM will override a default edit mask specified for a field in the DDM.

If EM=OFF is specified, no edit mask at all will be used.

An edit mask specified at statement level will override an edit mask specified at report level.

An edit mask specified at field level will override an edit mask specified at statement level.

Edit Masks for Numeric Fields

Edit masks for numeric fields (formats N, I, P, F) must include a "9" for each output position you want filled with a number (even if it is zero).

- A "Z" is used to indicate that the output position will be filled only if the available number is not zero.
- A decimal point is indicated with a period "."

To the right of the decimal point, a "Z" must not be specified. Leading, trailing, and insertion characters - for example, sign indicators - can be added.

Edit Masks for Alphanumeric Fields

Edit masks for alphanumeric fields must include an "X" for each alphanumeric character that is to be output.

With a few exceptions, you may add leading, trailing and insertion characters (with or without enclosing them in apostrophes).

The character "^" is used to insert blanks in edit mask for both numeric and alphanumeric fields.

Length of Fields

It is important to be aware of the length of the field to which you assign an edit mask.

- If the edit mask is longer than the field, this will yield unexpected results.
- If the edit mask is shorter than the field, the field output will be truncated to just those positions specified in the edit mask.

Examples:

Assuming an alphanumeric field that is 12 characters long and the field value to be output is "JOHNSON", the following edit masks will yield the following results:

Edit Masks for Date and Time Fields

Edit masks for date fields can include the characters "D" (day), "M" (month) and "Y" (year) in various combinations.

Edit masks for time fields can include the characters "H" (hour), "I" (minute), "S" (second) and "T" (tenth of a second) in various combinations.

In conjunction with edit masks for date and time fields, see also the date and time system variables.

Examples of Edit Masks

Some examples of edit masks, along with possible output they produce, are provided below.

In addition, the abbreviated notation for each edit mask is given. You can use either the abbreviated or the long notation.

Edit Mask	Abbreviation	Output A	Output B
EM=999.99	EM=9(3).9(2)	367.32	005.40
EM=ZZZZZ9	EM=Z(5)9(1)	0	579
EM=X^XXXXX	EM=X(1)^X(5)	B LUE	A 19379
EM=XXXXX	EM=X(3)X(2)	BLUE	AAB01
EM=MM.DD.YY	*	01.05.87	12.22.86
EM=HH.II.SS.T	**	08.54.12.7	14.32.54.3

- * Use a date system variable.
- ** Use a time system variable.

For further information about edit masks, see the session parameter EM in the Parameter Reference documentation.

Example Program without EM Parameters

```
** Example Program 'EDITMX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 SALARY (1:3)
 2 CITY
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
 DISPLAY 'N A M E' NAME /
          'OCCUPATION' JOB-TITLE
          'SALARY' SALARY (1:3)
          'LOCATION' CITY
SKIP 1
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output which shows the default edit masks available:

Page	1			97-08-19	17:26:19
	N A M E OCCUPATION	SALARY	LOCATION	-	
JONES		46000 TU	ILSA		
MANAGEI	R	42300			
		39300			
JONES		50000 MC	BILE		
DIRECTO	OR	46000			
		42700			
JONES		31000 MI	LWAUKEE		
PROGRAM	MMER	29400			
		27600>			

Example Program with EM Parameters

```
** Example Program 'EDITMX02'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 SALARY (1:3)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
```

```
DISPLAY 'N A M E' NAME (EM=X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X) /
FIRST-NAME (EM=...X(10)...)
'OCCUPATION' JOB-TITLE (EM=' ___ 'X(12))
'SALARY' SALARY (1:3) (EM=' USD 'ZZZ,999)
SKIP 1
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output. Compare the output with that of the previous program (Example Program without EM Parameters) to see how the EM specifications affect the way the fields are displayed.

Page	1			97-08-19	17:26:29
	N A M E FIRST-NAME	OCCUPATION	SA	LARY	
J O N E	-	MANAGER	USD USD USD	46,000 42,300 39,300	
J O N E		DIRECTOR	USD USD USD	50,000 46,000 42,700	
J O N E		PROGRAMMER	USD USD USD	31,000 29,400 27,600	

Further Examples of Edit Masks

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- EDITMX03
- EDITMX04
- EDITMX05

Vertical Displays Vertical Displays

Vertical Displays

This document describes how you can combine the features of the statements DISPLAY and WRITE to produce vertical displays of field values.

The following topics are covered:

- Creating Vertical Displays
- Combining DISPLAY and WRITE
- Tab Notation T*-field
- Positioning Notation x/y
- DISPLAY VERT Statement
- Tab Notation P*-field
- Further Example of DISPLAY VERT with WRITE Statement

Creating Vertical Displays

There are two ways of creating vertical displays:

- You can use a combination of the statements DISPLAY and WRITE.
- You can use the VERT option of the DISPLAY statement.

Combining DISPLAY and WRITE

As described in Statements DISPLAY and WRITE, the DISPLAY statement normally presents the data in columns with default headers, while the WRITE statement presents data horizontally without headers.

You can combine the features of the two statements to produce vertical displays of field values.

The DISPLAY statement produces the values of different fields for the same record across the page with a column for each field. The field values for each record are displayed below the values for the previous record.

By using a WRITE statement after a DISPLAY statement, you can insert textand/or field values specified in the WRITE statement between records displayed via the DISPLAY statement.

The following program illustrates the combination of DISPLAY and WRITE:

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX04'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 CITY

2 DEPT

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'SAN FRANCISCO'

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE

WRITE 20T 'DEPT:' DEPT

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Vertical Displays Tab Notation - T*field

It produces the following output:

```
Page 1 97-08-19 17:52:19

NAME CURRENT
POSITION

KOLENCE MANAGER
DEPT: TECH05

GOSDEN ANALYST
DEPT: TECH10

WALLACE SALES PERSON
DEPT: SALE20
```

Tab Notation - T*field

In the previous example, the position of the field DEPT is determined by the tab notation n**T** (in this case "20T", which means that the display begins in column 20 on the screen).

Field values specified in a WRITE statement can be lined up automatically with field values specified in the first DISPLAY statement of the program by using the tab notation **T****field* (where *field* is the name of the field to which the field is to be aligned).

In the following program, the output produced by the WRITE statement is aligned to the field JOB-TITLE by using the notation "T*JOB-TITLE":

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX05'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 JOB-TITLE

2 DEPT

2 CITY

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'SAN FRANCISCO'

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE

WRITE T*JOB-TITLE 'DEPT:' DEPT

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Page	1		97-08-19	17:52:19
	NAME	CURRENT POSITION		
KOLENCE	£	MANAGER DEPT: TECH05		
GOSDEN		ANALYST DEPT: TECH10		
WALLACE	E	SALES PERSON DEPT: SALE20		

Positioning Notation x/y

When you use the DISPLAY and WRITE statements in sequence and multiple lines are to be produced by the WRITE statement, you can use the notation x/y (number-slash-number) to determine in which row/column something is to be displayed. The positioning notation causes the next element in the DISPLAY or WRITE statement to be placed \mathbf{x} lines below the last output, beginning in column y of the output.

The following program illustrates the use of this notation:

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX06'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 FIRST-NAME
  2 MIDDLE-I
  2 ADDRESS-LINE (1:1)
  2 CITY
  2 ZIP
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'
 DISPLAY 'NAME AND ADDRESS' NAME
  WRITE 1/5 FIRST-NAME 1/30 MIDDLE-I
         2/5 ADDRESS-LINE (1:1)
         3/5 CITY
                               3/30 ZIP /
END-READ
END
```

Vertical Displays DISPLAY VERT Statement

```
97-08-19 17:55:47
Page
          1
  NAME AND ADDRESS
RUBIN
    SYLVIA
                              L
    2003 SARAZEN PLACE
                              10036
    NEW YORK
WALLACE
    MARY
    12248 LAUREL GLADE C
                              10036
    NEW YORK
KELLOGG
    HENRIETTA
                              S
    1001 JEFF RYAN DR.
    NEWARK
                              19711
```

DISPLAY VERT Statement

The standard display mode in Natural is horizontal.

With the VERT clause option of the DISPLAY statement, you can override the standard display and produce a vertical field display.

The HORIZ clause option, which can be used in the same DISPLAY statement, re-activates the standard horizontal display mode.

Column headings in vertical mode are controlled with various forms of the AS clause:

- Without AS clause, no column headings will be output.
- AS CAPTIONED causes default headings to be displayed.
- AS *text* causes the specified *text* to be displayed as column heading. Note that a slash (/) within the *text* element in a DISPLAY statement causes a line advance.
- AS *text* CAPTIONED causes the specified *text* to be displayed as column heading, and the default column headings to be displayed immediately before the field value in each line that is output.

The following example programs illustrate the use of the DISPLAY VERT statement.

DISPLAY VERT without AS Clause

The following program has no AS clause, which means that no column headings are output.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX09'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 CITY

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'

DISPLAY VERT NAME FIRST-NAME / CITY

SKIP 2

END-READ

END
```

Note that all field values are displayed vertically underneath one another:

```
Page 1 97-08-19 17:55:47

RUBIN
SYLVIA

NEW YORK

WALLACE
MARY

NEW YORK

KELLOGG
HENRIETTA

NEWARK
```

DISPLAY VERT AS CAPTIONED and HORIZ

The following program contains a VERT and a HORIZ clause, which causes some column values to be output vertically and others horizontally; moreover AS CAPTIONED causes the default column headers to be displayed.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX10'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 CITY

2 JOB-TITLE

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'

DISPLAY VERT AS CAPTIONED NAME FIRST-NAME

HORIZ JOB-TITLE SALARY (1:1)

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Vertical Displays DISPLAY VERT AS text

Page 1			97-08-19	17:55:47
NAME FIRST-NAME	CURRENT POSITION	ANNUAL SALARY		
RUBIN SYLVIA	SECRETARY	17000		
WALLACE MARY	ANALYST	38000		
KELLOGG HENRIETTA	DIRECTOR	52000		

DISPLAY VERT AS text

The following program contains an AS text clause, which displays the specified text as column header.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX11'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 CITY

2 JOB-TITLE

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'

DISPLAY VERT AS 'EMPLOYEES' NAME FIRST-NAME

HORIZ JOB-TITLE SALARY (1:1)

SKIP 1

END-READ

END
```

Page 1			97-08-19	7:55:47
EMPLOYEES	CURRENT POSITION	ANNUAL SALARY		
RUBIN SYLVIA	SECRETARY	17000		
WALLACE MARY	ANALYST	38000		
KELLOGG HENRIETTA	DIRECTOR	52000		

DISPLAY VERT AS text CAPTIONED

The following program contains an AS text CAPTIONED clause.

```
** Example Program 'DISPLX12'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 CITY

2 JOB-TITLE

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'

DISPLAY VERT AS 'EMPLOYEES' CAPTIONED NAME FIRST-NAME

HORIZ JOB-TITLE SALARY (1:1)

SKIP 1

END-READ
END
```

This clause causes the default column headers (NAME and FIRST-NAME) to be placed before the field values:

Page 1		97-04-19	17:55:47
EMPLOYEES	CURRENT POSITION	ANNUAL SALARY	
NAME RUBIN FIRST-NAME SYLVIA	SECRETARY	17000	
NAME WALLACE FIRST-NAME MARY	ANALYST	38000	
NAME KELLOGG FIRST-NAME HENRIETTA	DIRECTOR	52000	

Tab Notation P*field

If you use a combination of DISPLAY VERT statement and subsequent WRITE statement, you can use the tab notation P*field-name in the WRITE statement to align the position of a field to the column **and** line position of a particular field specified in the DISPLAY VERT statement.

In the following program, the fields SALARY and BONUS are displayed in the same column, SALARY in every first line, BONUS in every second line.

The text "***SALARY PLUS BONUS***" is aligned to SALARY, which means that it is displayed in the same column as SALARY and in the first line, whereas the text "(IN US DOLLARS)" is aligned to BONUS and therefore displayed in the same column as BONUS and in the second line.

```
** Example Program 'WRITEX07'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 CITY
2 NAME
2 JOB-TITLE
2 SALARY (1:1)
2 BONUS (1:1,1:1)
```

```
END-DEFINE

READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'LOS ANGELES'

DISPLAY NAME JOB-TITLE VERT AS 'INCOME' SALARY (1) BONUS (1,1)

WRITE P*SALARY '***SALARY PLUS BONUS***'

P*BONUS '(IN US DOLLARS)'

SKIP 1

END-READ
END
```

Page 1		97-08-19 18:14:11
NAME	CURRENT POSITION	INCOME
POORE JR	SECRETARY	25000 0 ***SALARY PLUS BONUS*** (IN US DOLLARS)
PREPARATA	MANAGER	46000 9000 ***SALARY PLUS BONUS*** (IN US DOLLARS)
MARKUSH	TRAINEE	22000 0 ***SALARY PLUS BONUS*** (IN US DOLLARS)

Further Example of DISPLAY VERT with WRITE Statement

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• WRITEX10

Object Types Object Types

Object Types

This document describes the various types of Natural programming object that can be used to achieve an efficient application structure.

The following topics are covered:

- What Types of Programming Objects Are There?
- Data Areas
- Programs, Subprograms and Subroutines
- Maps
- Helproutines
- Multiple Use of Source Code Copycode
- Documenting Natural Objects Text
- Creating Event Driven Applications Dialog
- Creating Component Based Applications Class
- Using Non-Natural Files Resource

What Types of Programming Objects Are There?

The following topics are covered:

- Types of Programming Objects
- Creating and Maintaining Objects

Types of Programming Objects

Within a Natural application, several types of programming objects can be used to achieve an efficient application structure.

There are the following types of Natural programming objects:

- Local Data Area
- Global Data Area
- Parameter Data Area
- Program
- Subprogram
- Subroutine
- Helproutine
- Map
- Copycode
- Text
- Class
- Ressource

Creating and Maintaining Objects

To create and maintain all these objects, you use the Natural editors

- Local data areas, global data areas and parameter data areas are created/maintained with the data area editor.
- Maps are created/maintained with the map editor.
- Dialogs are created/maintained with the dialog editor.
- Classes are created/maintained with the Class Builder (Windows) or with the program editor (Mainframe, UNIX).
- All other types of objects listed above are created/maintained with the program editor.

Data Areas Data Areas

Data Areas

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Data Areas
- Local Data Area
- Global Data Area
- Parameter Data Area

Use of Data Areas

As explained in Defining Fields, all fields that are to be used in a program have to be defined in a DEFINE DATA statement.

The fields can be defined within the DEFINE DATA statement itself; or they can be defined outside the program in a separate data area, with the DEFINE DATA statement referencing that data area.

Natural supports three types of data areas:

- Local Data Area
 In a local data area, you define the data elements that are to be used by a single Natural module in an application.
- Global Data Area
 In a global data area, you define the data elements that are to be used by more than one Natural program, routine, etc. in an application.
- Parameter Data Area
 In a parameter data area, you define the fields that are passed as parameters to a subprogram, external subroutine or helproutine.

Local Data Area

Variables defined as local are used only within a single Natural module. There are two options for defining local data:

- You can define the data within the program.
- You can define the data in a local data area outside the program.

In the first example, the fields are defined within the DEFINE DATA statement of the program. In the second example, the same fields are defined in a local data area (LDA), and the DEFINE DATA statement only contains a reference to that data area.

Example 1 - Fields Defined within a DEFINE DATA Statement:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
2 NAME
2 FIRST-NAME
2 PERSONNEL-ID

1 #VARI-A (A20)

1 #VARI-B (N3.2)

1 #VARI-C (I4)

END-DEFINE
```

. . .

Data Areas Global Data Area

Example 2 - Fields Defined in a Separate Data Area:

Program:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
USING LDA39
END-DEFINE
```

Local Data Area "LDA39":

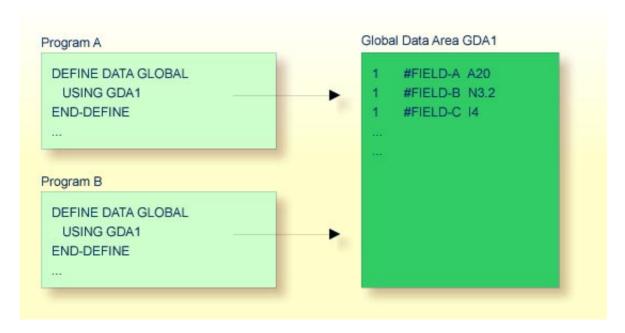
ΙT	L	Name	F	Leng	<pre>Index/Init/EM/Name/Comment</pre>
	-		-		
V	1	VIEWEMP			EMPLOYEES
	2	NAME	Α	20	
	2	FIRST-NAME	Α	20	
	2	PERSONNEL-ID	Α	8	
	1	#VARI-A	Α	20	
	1	#VARI-B	N	3.2	
	1	#VARI-C	Ι	4	

For a clear application structure, it is usually better to define fields in data areas outside the programs.

Global Data Area

In a global data area (GDA), you define the data elements that are to be used by more than one program, routine, etc. in an application.

Variables defined in a global data area may be referenced by several objects in an application.



The global data area and the objects which reference it must be in the same library (or a steplib).

Global data areas must be defined with the data area editor, and a program using that data area must reference it in the DEFINE DATA statement. Any number of main programs, external subroutines and helproutines can share the same global data area.

Parameter Data Area Data Area

Each object can reference only one global data area; that is, a DEFINE DATA statement must not contain more than one GLOBAL clause.

Note:

When you build an application where multiple objects share a global data area, remember that modifications to a global data area affect all programs or routines that reference that data area. Therefore these objects must be STOWed again after the global data area has been modified.

When are Global Data Areas Initialized?

A global data area is initialized when it is used for the first time. It remains active in the current Natural session (that is, the variables in the global data area retain their contents) until:

- the next LOGON, or
- another global data area is used on the same level (levels are described later in this section), or
- a RELEASE VARIABLES statement is executed. In this case, the variables in the global data area are reset when either the execution of the level 1 program is finished, or the program invokes another program via a FETCH or RUN statement.

Note:

If a GDA named "COMMON" exists in a library, the program named ACOMMON is invoked automatically when you LOGON to that library.

Parameter Data Area

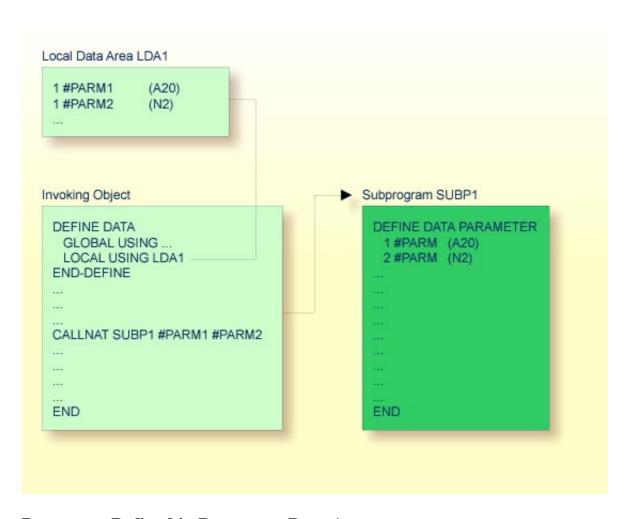
Parameter data areas (PDAs) are used by subprograms and external subroutines.

A subprogram is invoked with a CALLNAT statement. With the CALLNAT statement, parameters can be passed from the invoking object to the subprogram.

These parameters must be defined with a DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement in the subprogram:

- they can be defined in the PARAMETER clause of the DEFINE DATA statement itself; or
- they can be defined in a separate parameter data area, with the DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement referencing that parameter data area.

Parameter Defined within DEFINE DATA PARAMETER Statement



Parameter Defined in Parameter Data Area

In the same way, parameters that are passed to an external subroutine via a PERFORM statement must be defined with a DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement in the external subroutine.

In the invoking object, the parameter variables passed to the subprogram/ subroutine need not be defined in a parameter data area; in the illustrations above, they are defined in the local data area used by the invoking object (but they could also be defined in a global data area).

The sequence, format and length of the parameters specified with the CALLNAT/PERFORM statement in the invoking object must exactly match the sequence, format and length of the fields specified in the DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement of the invoked subprogram/subroutine. However, the names of the variables in the invoking object and the invoked subprogram/subroutine need not be the same (as the parameter data are transferred by address, not by name).

Programs, Subprograms and Subroutines

This document discusses those object types which can be invoked as routines; that is, as subordinate programs.

Helproutines and maps, although they are also invoked from other objects, are strictly speaking not routines as such, and are therefore discussed in separate documents; see Helproutines and Maps.

The following topics are covered:

- A Modular Application Structure
- Multiple Levels of Invoked Objects
- Program
- Subroutine
- Subprogram
- Processing Flow when Invoking a Routine

A Modular Application Structure

Typically, a Natural application does not consist of a single huge program, but is split into several modules. Each of these modules will be a functional unit of manageable size, and each module is connected to the other modules of the application in a clearly defined way. This provides for a well structured application, which makes its development and subsequent maintenance a lot easier and faster.

During the execution of a main program, other programs, subprograms, subroutines, helproutines and maps can be invoked. These objects can in turn invoke other objects (for example, a subroutine can itself invoke another subroutine). Thus, the modular structure of an application can become quite complex and extend over several levels.

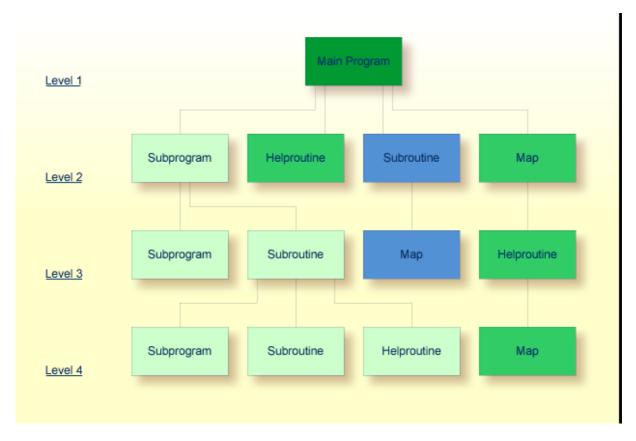
Multiple Levels of Invoked Objects

Each invoked object is one level below the level of the object from which it was invoked; that is, with each invocation of a subordinate object, the level number is incremented by 1.

Any program that is directly executed is at Level 1; any subprogram, subroutine, map or helproutine directly invoked by the main program is at Level 2; when such a subroutine in turn invokes another subroutine, the latter is at Level 3.

A program invoked with a FETCH statement from within another object is classified as a main program, operating from Level 1. A program that is invoked with FETCH RETURN, however, is classified as a subordinate program and is assigned a level one below that of the invoking object.

The following illustration is an example of multiple levels of invoked objects and also shows how these levels are counted:



If you wish to ascertain the level number of the object that is currently being executed, you can use the system variable *LEVEL (which is described in the System Variables documentation).

This document discusses the following Natural object types, which can be invoked as routines (that is, subordinate programs):

- program
- subroutine
- subprogram

Helproutines and maps, although they are also invoked from other objects, are strictly speaking not routines as such, and are therefore discussed in separate documents; see Helproutines and Maps.

Basically, programs, subprograms and subroutines differ from one another in the way data can be passed between them and in their possibilities of sharing each other's data areas. Therefore the decision which object type to use for which purpose depends very much on the data structure of your application.

Program

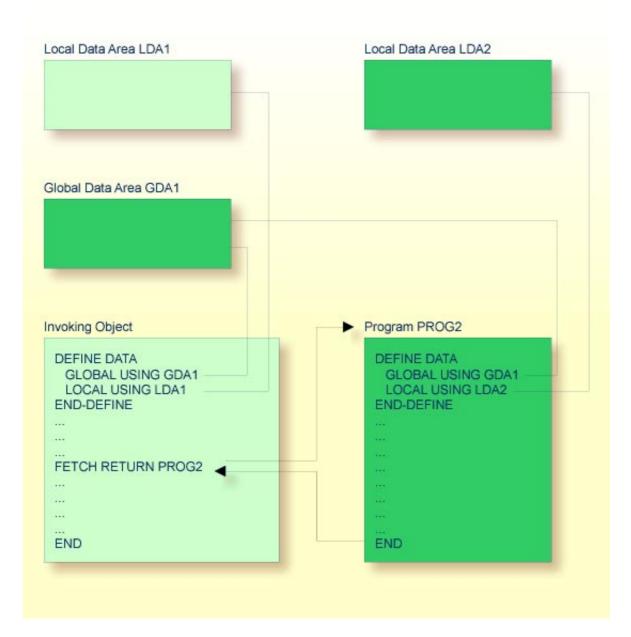
A program can be executed - and thus tested - by itself.

- To compile and execute a source program, you use the system command RUN.
- To execute a program that already exists in compiled form, you use the system command EXECUTE.

A program can also be invoked from another object with a FETCH or FETCH RETURN statement. The invoking object can be another program, a subprogram, subroutine or helproutine.

- When a program is invoked with FETCH RETURN, the execution of the invoking object will be suspended not terminated and the FETCHed program will be activated as a **subordinate program**. When the execution of the FETCHed program is terminated, the invoking object will be re-activated and its execution continued with the statement following the FETCH RETURN statement.
- When a program is invoked with FETCH, the execution of the invoking object will be terminated and the FETCHed program will be activated as a **main program**. The invoking object will not be re-activated upon termination of the FETCHed program.

Program Invoked with FETCH RETURN

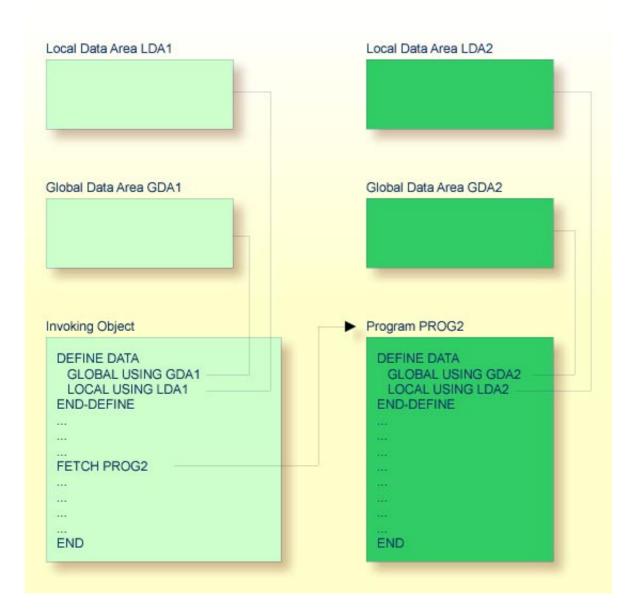


A program invoked with FETCH RETURN can access the global data area used by the invoking object.

In addition, every program can have its own local data area, in which the fields that are to be used only within the program are defined.

However, a program invoked with FETCH RETURN cannot have its own global data area.

Program Invoked with FETCH



A program invoked with FETCH as a main program usually establishes its own global data area (as shown in the illustration above). However, it could also use the same global data area as established by the invoking object.

Note:

A source program can also be invoked with a RUN statement; see the RUN statement in the Natural Statements documentation.

Subroutine

The statements that make up a subroutine must be defined within a DEFINE SUBROUTINE ... END-SUBROUTINE statement block.

A subroutine is invoked with a PERFORM statement.

A subroutine may be an **inline subroutine** or an **external subroutine**:

- An **inline subroutine** is defined within the object which contains the PERFORM statement that invokes it.
- An **external subroutine** is defined in a separate object of type subroutine outside the object which invokes it.

If you have a block of code which is to be executed several times within an object, it is useful to use an inline subroutine. You then only have to code this block once within a DEFINE SUBROUTINE statement block and invoke it with several PERFORM statements.

Inline Subroutine



An inline subroutine can be contained within a programming object of type program, subprogram, subroutine or helproutine.

If an inline subroutine is so large that it impairs the readability of the object in which it is contained, you may consider putting it into an external subroutine, so as to enhance the readability of your application.

External Subroutine



An external subroutine - that is, an object of type subroutine - cannot be executed by itself. It must be invoked from another object. The invoking object can be a program, subprogram, subroutine or helproutine.

Data Available to an Inline Subroutine

An inline subroutine has access to the local data area and the global data area used by the object in which it is contained.

Data Available to an External Subroutine

An external subroutine can access the global data area used by the invoking object.

Moreover, parameters can be passed with the PERFORM statement from the invoking object to the external subroutine. These parameters must be defined either in the DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement of the subroutine, or in a parameter data area used by the subroutine.

In addition, an external subroutine can have its local data area, in which the fields that are to be used only within the subroutine are defined.

However, an external subroutine cannot have its own global data area.

Subprogram

Typically, a subprogram would contain a generally available standard function that is used by various objects in an application.

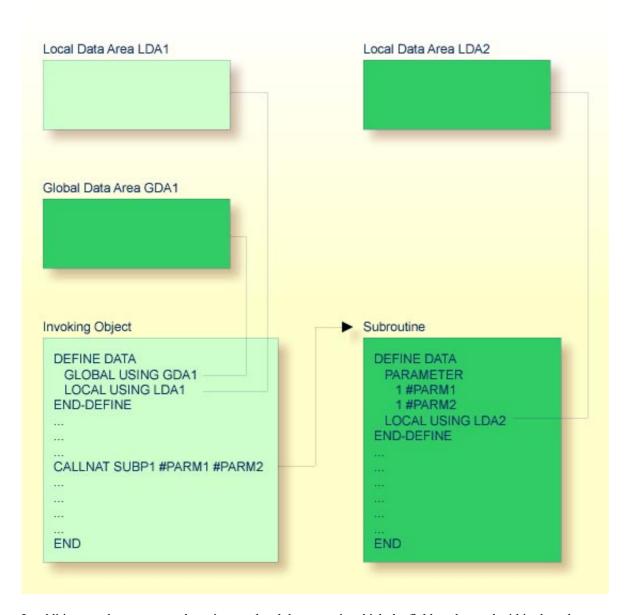
A subprogram cannot be executed by itself. It must be invoked from another object. The invoking object can be a program, subprogram, subroutine or helproutine.

A subprogram is invoked with a CALLNAT statement.

When the CALLNAT statement is executed, the execution of the invoking object will be suspended and the subprogram executed. After the subprogram has been executed, the execution of the invoking object will be continued with the statement following the CALLNAT statement.

Data Available to a Subprogram

With the CALLNAT statement, parameters can be passed from the invoking object to the subprogram. These parameters are the only data available to the subprogram from the invoking object. They must be defined either in the DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement of the subprogram, or in a parameter data area used by the subprogram.



In addition, a subprogram can have its own local data area, in which the fields to be used within the subprogram are defined.

If a subprogram in turn invokes a subroutine or helproutine, it can also establish its own global data area to be shared with the subroutine/helproutine.

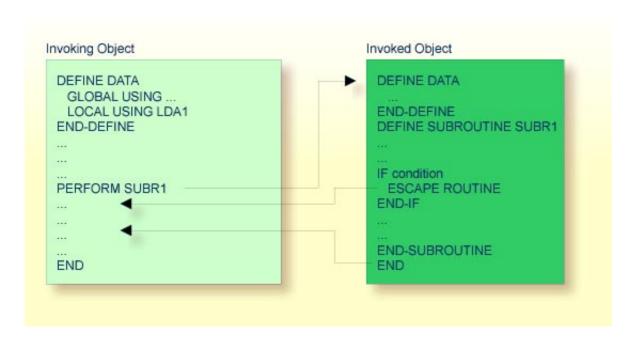
Processing Flow when Invoking a Routine

When the CALLNAT, PERFORM or FETCH RETURN statement that invokes a routine - a subprogram, an external subroutine, or a program respectively - is executed, the execution of the invoking object is suspended and the execution of the routine begins.

The execution of the routine continues until either its END statement is reached or processing of the routine is stopped by an ESCAPE ROUTINE statement being executed.

In either case, processing of the invoking object will then continue with the statement following the CALLNAT, PERFORM or FETCH RETURN statement used to invoke the routine.

Example:



Maps Maps

Maps

As an alternative to dynamic screen layout specification, the INPUT statement offers the possibility to use predefined map layouts which makes use of the Natural object type "map".

The following topics are covered:

- Benefits of Using Maps
- Types of Maps
- Creating Maps
- Starting/Stopping Map Processing

Benefits of Using Maps

Using predefined map layouts rather than dynamic screen layout specifications offers various advantages such as:

- Clearly structured applications as a result of a consequent separation of program logic and display logic.
- Map layout modifications possible without making changes to the body programs.
- The language of an applications's user interface can be easily adapted for internationalization or localization.

At least, when it comes to maintaining existing Natural applications, the profit of using programming objects such as maps will become obvious.

Types of Maps

Maps (screen layouts) are those parts of an application which the users see on their screens.

The following types of maps exist:

• Input Map

The dialog with the user is done via input maps.

Output Map

If an application produces any output report, this report can be displayed on the screen by using an output map.

Help Map

Help maps are, in principle, like any other maps, but when they are assigned as help, additional checks are performed to ensure their usability for help purpose.

The object type "map" comprises

- the map body which defines the screen layout and
- an associated parameter data area (PDA) which, as a sort of interface, contains data definitions such as name, format, length of each field presented on a specific map.

Related Topics:

- For information on selection boxes that can be attached to input fields, see SB Selection Box in the INPUT statement documentation and SB Selection Box in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation.
- For information on split screen maps where the upper portion may be used as an output map and the lower portion as an input map, see Split-Screen Feature in the INPUT statement documentation.

Creating Maps Maps

Creating Maps

Maps and help map layouts are created and edited in the map editor. The appropriate LDA is created and maintained in the data area editor.

Depending on the platform on which Natural is installed, these editors have either a character user interface or a graphical user interface.

Related Topics:

- For information on using the map editor, see Map Editor in the platform-specific Natural Editor documentation
- For information on using the map editor, see Data Area Editor in the platform-specific Natural Editor documentation.
- For a comprehensive description of the full range of possibilities provided by the Natural map editor (character-user-interface version), see Tutorial Using the Map Editor.
- For information on , see Syntax 1 Dynamic Screen Layout Specification in the INPUT statement documenation.
- For information on input processing using a map layout created with the map editor, see Syntax 2 Using Predefined Map Layout in the INPUT statement documenation.

Starting/Stopping Map Processing

An **input map** is invoked with an INPUT USING MAP statement.

An output map is invoked with a WRITE USING MAP statement.

Processing of a map can be stopped with an ESCAPE ROUTINE statement in a processing rule.

Helproutines Helproutines

Helproutines

Helproutines have specific characteristics to facilitate the processing of help requests. They may be used to implement complex and interactive help systems. They are created with the program editor.

The following topics are covered below:

- Invoking Help
- Specifying Helproutines
- Programming Considerations for Helproutines
- Passing Parameters to Helproutines
- Help as a Window

Invoking Help

A Natural user can invoke a Natural helproutine either by entering the help character (the default character is "?") in a field, or by pressing the help key (usually PF1).

Note 1:

- The help character must be entered only once.
- The help character must be the only character modified in the input string.
- The help character must be the first character in the input string.

Note 2:

If a helproutine is specified for a numeric field, Natural will allow a question mark to be entered for the purpose of invoking the helproutine for that field. Natural will still check that valid numeric data are provided as field input.

If not already specified, the help key may be specified with the SET KEY statement:

```
SET KEY PF1=HELP
```

A helproutine can only be invoked by a user if it has been specified in the program or map from which it is to be invoked.

Specifying Helproutines

A helproutine may be specified:

- in a program: at statement level and at field level;
- in a map: at map level and at field level.

If a user requests help for a field for which no help has been specified, or if a user requests help without a field being referenced, the helproutine specified at the statement or map level is invoked.

A helproutine may also be invoked by using a REINPUT USING HELP statement (either in the program itself or in a processing rule). If the REINPUT USING HELP statement contains a MARK option, the helproutine assigned to the MARKed field is invoked. If no field-specific helproutine is assigned, the map helproutine is invoked.

A REINPUT statement in a helproutine may only apply to INPUT statements within the same helproutine.

The name of a helproutine may be specified either with the session parameter HE of an INPUT statement:

```
INPUT (HE='HELP2112')
```

or using the extending field editing facility of the map editor (see Creating Maps and the Natural Editor documentation).

The name of a helproutine may be specified as an alphanumeric constant or as an alphanumeric variable containing the name. If it is a constant, the name of the helproutine must be specified within apostrophes.

Programming Considerations for Helproutines

Processing of a helproutine can be stopped with an ESCAPE ROUTINE statement.

Be careful when using END OF TRANSACTION or BACKOUT TRANSACTION statements in a helproutine, because this will affect the transaction logic of the main program.

Passing Parameters to Helproutines

A helproutine can access the currently active global data area (but it cannot have its own global data area). In addition, it can have its own local data area.

Data may also be passed from/to a helproutine via parameters. A helproutine may have up to 20 explicit parameters and one implicit parameter. The explicit parameters are specified with the "HE" operand after the helproutine name:

```
HE='MYHELP','001'
```

The implicit parameter is the field for which the helproutine was invoked:

```
INPUT #A (A5) (HE='YOURHELP','001')
```

where "001" is an explicit parameter and "#A" is the implicit parameter/the field.

This is specified within the DEFINE DATA PARAMETER statement of the helproutine as:

```
DEFINE DATA PARAMETER

1 #PARM1 (A3) /* explicit parameter

1 #PARM2 (A5) /* implicit parameter

END-DEFINE
```

Please note that the implicit parameter (#PARM2 in the above example) may be omitted. The implicit parameter is used to access the field for which help was requested, and to return data from the helproutine to the field. For example, you might implement a calculator program as a helproutine and have the result of the calculations returned to the field.

Note 1:

When help is called, the helproutine is called before the data are passed from the screen to the program data areas. This means that helproutines cannot access data entered within the same screen transaction.

Once help processing is complete, the screen data will be refreshed: any fields which have been modified by the helproutine will be updated - excluding fields which had been modified by the user before the helproutine was invoked, but including the field for which help was requested.

Exception: If the field for which help was requested is split into several parts by dynamic attributes (DY session parameter), and the part in which the question mark is entered is *after* a part modified by the user, the field content will not be modified by the helproutine.

Helproutines Equal Sign Option

Note 2:

Attribute control variables are not evaluated again after the processing of the helproutine, even if they have been modified within the helproutine.

Equal Sign Option

The equal sign (=) may be specified as an explicit parameter:

```
INPUT PERSONNEL-NUMBER (HE='HELPROUT',=)
```

This parameter is processed as an internal field (A65) which contains the field name (or map name if specified at map level). The corresponding helproutine starts with:

```
DEFINE DATA PARAMETER

1 FNAME (A65) /* contains 'PERSONNEL-NUMBER'

1 FVALUE (N8) /* value of field (optional)

END-DEFINE
```

This option may be used to access one common helproutine which reads the field name and provides field-specific help by accessing the application online documentation or the Predict data dictionary.

Array Indices

If the field selected by the help character or the help key is an array element, its indices are supplied as implicit parameters (1 - 3 depending on rank, regardless of the explicit parameters).

The format/length of these parameters is I2.

```
INPUT A(*,*) (HE='HELPROUT',=)
```

The corresponding helproutine starts with:

```
DEFINE DATA PARAMETER

1 FNAME (A65) /* contains 'A'

1 FVALUE (N8) /* value of selected element

1 FINDEX1 (I2) /* 1st dimension index

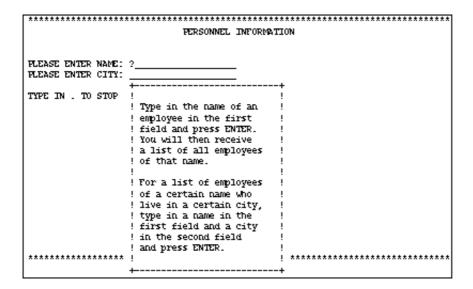
1 FINDEX2 (I2) /* 2nd dimension index

END-DEFINE
```

Help as a Window

The size of a help to be displayed may be smaller than the screen size. In this case, the help appears on the screen as a window, enclosed by a frame:

Help as a Window Helproutines



Within a helproutine, the size of the window may be specified as follows:

- by a FORMAT statement (for example, to specify the page size and line size: FORMAT PS=15 LS=30);
- by an INPUT USING MAP statement; in this case, the size defined for the map (in its map settings) is used;
- by a DEFINE WINDOW statement; this statement allows you to either explicitly define a window size or leave it to Natural to automatically determine the size of the window depending on its contents.

The position of a help window is computed automatically from the position of the field for which help was requested. Natural places the window as close as possible to the corresponding field without overlaying the field. With the DEFINE WINDOW statement, you may bypass the automatic positioning and determine the window position yourself.

For further information on window processing, please refer to the DEFINE WINDOW statement in the Natural Statements documentation and the terminal command %W in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Multiple Use of Source Code - Copycode

This document describes the advantages and the use of copycode.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Copycode
- Processing of Copycode

Use of Copycode

Copycode is a portion of source code which can be included in another object via an INCLUDE statement.

So, if you have a statement block which is to appear in identical form in several objects, you may use copycode instead of coding the statement block several times. This reduces the coding effort and also ensures that the blocks are really identical.

Processing of Copycode

The copycode is included at compilation; that is, the source-code lines from the copycode are not physically inserted into the object that contains the INCLUDE statement, but they will be included in the compilation process and are thus part of the resulting object module.

Consequently, when you modify the source code of copycode, you also have to newly compile (STOW) all objects which use that copycode.

Copycode cannot be executed on its own. It cannot be STOWed, but only SAVEd.

For further information on copycode, please refer to the description of the INCLUDE statement in the Natural Statements documentation.

Note:

An END statement must not be placed within a copycode.

Documenting Natural Objects - Text

The Natural object type "text" is used to write text rather than programs.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Text Objects
- Writing Text

Use of Text Objects

You can use this type of object to document Natural objects in more detail than you can, for example, within the source code of a program.

"Text" objects may also be useful at sites where Predict is not available for program documentation purposes.

Writing Text

You write the text using the Natural program editor.

The only difference in handling as opposed to writing programs, is that the text you write stays as it is, that is, there is no lower to upper case translation or empty line suppression (provided in your editor profile Empty Line Suppression is set to "N" and Editing in Lower Case is set to "Y", see the Natural Editor documentation for more details).

You can write any text you wish (there is no syntax check).

"Text" objects can only be SAVEd, they cannot be STOWed. They cannot be RUN, only displayed in the editor.

Creating Event Driven Applications - Dialog

Dialogs are used in conjunction with event-driven programming when creating Natural applications for graphical user interfaces (GUIs).

For information on dialogs and event-driven programming, please refer to Event-Driven Programming in the Natural for Windows documentation.

Creating Component Based Applications - Class

Classes are used to apply an object based programming style.

On Windows platforms, classes are used to create component based applications in a client/server environment. For more information, refer to the Natural for Windows documentation.

For information on classes, please refer to the NaturalX documentation.

Using Non-Natural Files - Resource

Shared and private resources are only available with Natural under UNIX and Windows. For more information, refer to the Natural for Windows or Natural for UNIX documentation.

Further Programming Aspects

The following topics are covered:

- END/STOP Statements
- Conditional Processing IF Statement
- Loop Processing
- Control Breaks
- Data Computation
- System Variables and System Functions
- Stack
- Processing of Date Information

END/STOP Statements END/STOP Statements

END/STOP Statements

The following topics are covered:

- End of Program END Statement
- End of Application STOP Statement

End of Program - END Statement

The END statement is used to mark the end of a Natural program, subprogram, external subroutine or helproutine.

Every one of these objects must contain an END statement as the last statement.

Every object may contain only one END statement.

End of Application - STOP Statement

The STOP statement is used to terminate the execution of a Natural application. A STOP statement executed anywhere within an application immediately stops the execution of the entire application.

Conditional Processing - IF Statement

With the IF statement, you define a logical condition, and the execution of the statement attached to the IF statement then depends on that condition.

The following topics are covered:

- Structure of IF Statement
- Example of IF Statement
- Nested IF Statements
- Example of Nested IF Statements
- Further Example of IF Statement

Structure of IF Statement

The IF statement contains three components:

IF In the IF clause, you specify the logical condition which is to be met.

THEN In the THEN clause you specify the statement(s) to be executed if this condition is met.

ELSE In the (optional) ELSE clause, you can specify the statement(s) to be executed if this condition is *not* met.

So, an IF statement takes the following general form:

```
IF condition
   THEN execute statement(s)
   ELSE execute other statement(s)
END-IF
```

If you wish a certain processing to be performed only if the IF condition is **not** met, you can specify the clause THEN IGNORE. The IGNORE statement causes the IF condition to be ignored if it is met.

For more information on logical conditions, see General Information of the Natural Statements documentation.

Example of IF Statement

```
** Example Program 'IFX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 BIRTH

2 CITY

2 SALARY (1:1)

END-DEFINE

*

LIMIT 7

READ MYVIEW BY CITY STARTING FROM 'C'

IF SALARY (1) LT 40000 THEN

WRITE NOTITLE '*****' NAME 30X 'SALARY LT 40000'

ELSE
```

```
DISPLAY NAME BIRTH (EM=YYYY-MM-DD) SALARY (1) END-IF END-READ END
```

The IF statement block in the above program causes the following conditional processing to be performed:

- IF the salary is less than 40000, THEN the WRITE statement is to be executed;
- otherwise (ELSE), that is, if the salary is 40000 or more, the DISPLAY statement is to be executed.

The program produces the following output:

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	ANNUAL SALARY	
**** KEEN **** FORRESTER			SALARY LT 40000 SALARY LT 40000
**** JONES **** MELKANOFF			SALARY LT 40000 SALARY LT 40000
DAVENPORT GEORGES	1948-12-25 1949-10-26	42000 182800	SALARI LI 40000
**** FULLERTON	1010 10 20	102000	SALARY LT 40000

Nested IF Statements

It is possible to use various nested IF statements; for example, you can make the execution of a THEN clause dependent on another IF statement which you specify in the THEN clause.

Example of Nested IF Statements

```
** Example Program 'IFX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 CITY
  2 SALARY (1:1)
  2 BIRTH
  2 PERSONNEL-ID
1 MYVIEW2 VIEW OF VEHICLES
  2 PERSONNEL-ID
  2 MAKE
1 #BIRTH (D)
END-DEFINE
MOVE EDITED '19450101' TO #BIRTH (EN=YYYYMMDD)
LIMIT 20
FND1. FIND MYVIEW WITH CITY = 'BOSTON'
                 SORTED BY NAME
  IF SALARY (1) LESS THAN 20000
   THEN WRITE NOTITLE '*****' NAME 30X 'SALARY LT 20000'
   IF BIRTH GT #BIRTH
      FIND MYVIEW2 WITH PERSONNEL-ID = PERSONNEL-ID (FND1.)
```

```
DISPLAY (IS=ON) NAME BIRTH (EM=YYYY-MM-DD)
SALARY (1) MAKE (AL=8 IS=OFF)
END-IF
END-IF
SKIP 1
END-FIND
END
```

The above program with nested IF statements produces the following output:

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	ANNUAL SALARY	MAKE	
**** COHEN				SALARY LT 20000
CREMER	1972-12-14	20000	FORD	
**** FLEMING				SALARY LT 20000
**** GREENACRE				SALARY LT 20000
PERREAULT	1950-05-12	30500	CHRYSLER	
**** SHAW				SALARY LT 20000
STANWOOD	1946-09-08	31000	CHRYSLER FORD	

Further Example of IF Statement

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• IFX03

Loop Processing Loop Processing

Loop Processing

A processing loop is a group of statements which are executed repeatedly until a stated condition has been satisfied, or as long as a certain condition prevails.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Processing Loops
- Limiting Database Loops
- Limiting Non-Database Loops REPEAT Statement
- Example of REPEAT Statement
- Terminating a Processing Loop ESCAPE Statement
- Loops within Loops
- Example of Nested FIND Statements
- Referencing Statements within a Program
- Example of Referencing with Line Numbers
- Example with Statement Reference Labels

Use of Processing Loops

Processing loops can be subdivided into database loops and non-database loops:

Database processing loops

are those created automatically by Natural to process data selected from a database as a result of a READ, FIND or HISTOGRAM statement.

These statements are described in the section Database Access.

Non-database processing loops

are initiated by the statements REPEAT, FOR, CALL FILE, CALL LOOP, SORT, and READ WORK FILE.

More than one processing loop may be active at the same time. Loops may be embedded or nested within other loops which remain active (open).

A processing loop must be explicitly closed with a corresponding END-... statement (for example, END-REPEAT, END-FOR, etc.)

The SORT statement, which invokes the sort program of the operating system, closes all active processing loops and initiates a new processing loop.

Limiting Database Loops

- Possible Ways of Limiting Database Loops
- LT Session Parameter
- LIMIT Statement
- Limit Notation
- Priority of Limit Settings

Possible Ways of Limiting Database Loops

With the statements READ, FIND or HISTOGRAM, you have three ways of limiting the number of repetitions of the processing loops initiated with these statements:

- using the session parameter LT,
- using a LIMIT statement,
- or using a limit notation in a READ/FIND/HISTOGRAM statement itself.

LT Session Parameter

With the system command GLOBALS, you can specify the session parameter LT, which limits the number of records which may be read in a database processing loop.

Example:

GLOBALS LT=100

This limit applies to all READ, FIND and HISTOGRAM statements in the entire session.

LIMIT Statement

In a program, you can use the LIMIT statement to limit the number of records which may be read in a database processing loop.

Example:

LIMIT 100

The LIMIT statement applies to the remainder of the program unless it is overridden by another LIMIT statement or limit notation.

Limit Notation

With a READ, FIND or HISTOGRAM statement itself, you can specify the number of records to be read in parentheses immediately after the statement name.

Example:

READ (10) VIEWXYZ BY NAME

This limit notation overrides any other limit in effect, but applies only to the statement in which it is specified.

Priority of Limit Settings

If the limit set with the LT parameter is smaller than a limit specified with a LIMIT statement or a limit notation, the LT limit has priority over any of these other limits.

Limiting Non-Database Loops - REPEAT Statement

Non-database processing loops begin and end based on logical condition criteria or some other specified limiting condition.

The REPEAT statement is discussed here as representative of a non-database loop statement.

With the REPEAT statement, you specify one or more statements which are to be executed repeatedly. Moreover, you can specify a logical condition, so that the statements are only executed either until or as long as that condition is met. For this purpose you use an UNTIL or WHILE clause.

If you specify the logical condition

- in an UNTIL clause, the REPEAT loop will continue *until* the logical condition is met;
- in a WHILE clause, the REPEAT loop will continue as long as the logical condition remains true.

If you specify **no** logical condition, the REPEAT loop must be exited with one of the following statements:

- ESCAPE
 - terminates the execution of the processing loop and continues processing outside the loop (see below).
- STOP
 - stops the execution of the entire Natural application.
- TERMINATE
 - stops the execution of the Natural application and also ends the Natural session.

Example of REPEAT Statement

```
** Example Program 'REPEAX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 SALARY (1:1)
1 #PAY1 (N8)
END-DEFINE
READ (5) MYVIEW BY NAME WHERE SALARY (1) = 30000 THRU 39999
 MOVE SALARY (1) TO #PAY1
 REPEAT WHILE #PAY1 LT 40000
   MULTIPLY #PAY1 BY 1.1
   DISPLAY NAME (IS=ON) SALARY (1)(IS=ON) #PAY1
  END-REPEAT
 SKIP 1
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output:

Page 1			97-08-19	18:42:53
NAME	ANNUAL SALARY	#PAY1		
ADKINSON	34500	37950 41745		
	33500	36850 40535		
	36000	39600 43560		
AFANASSIEV	37000	40700		
ALEXANDER	34500	37950 41745		

Terminating a Processing Loop - ESCAPE Statement

The ESCAPE statement is used to terminate the execution of a processing loop based on a logical condition.

You can place an ESCAPE statement within loops in conditional IF statement groups, in break processing statement groups (AT END OF DATA, AT END OF PAGE, AT BREAK), or as a stand-alone statement implementing the basic logical conditions of a non-database loop.

The ESCAPE statement offers the options TOP and BOTTOM, which determine where processing is to continue after the processing loop has been left via the ESCAPE statement:

- ESCAPE TOP is used to continue processing at the top of the processing loop.
- ESCAPE BOTTOM is used to continue processing with the first statement following the processing loop.

You can specify several ESCAPE statements within the same processing loop.

For further details and examples of the ESCAPE statement, see the Natural Statements documentation.

Loops Within Loops

A database statement can be placed within a database processing loop initiated by another database statement. When database loop-initiating statements are embedded in this way, a "hierarchy" of loops is created, each of which is processed for each record which meets the selection criteria.

Multiple levels of loops can be embedded. For example, non-database loops can be nested one inside the other. Database loops can be nested inside non-database loops. Database and non-database loops can be nested within conditional statement groups.

Example of Nested FIND Statements

The following program illustrates a hierarchy of two loops, with one FIND loop nested or embedded within another FIND loop.

```
** Example Program 'FINDX06'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 EMPLOY-VIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
 2 CITY
  2 NAME
  2 PERSONNEL-ID
1 VEH-VIEW VIEW OF VEHICLES
  2 MAKE
  2 PERSONNEL-ID
END-DEFINE
FND1. FIND EMPLOY-VIEW WITH CITY = 'NEW YORK' OR = 'BEVERLEY HILLS'
 FIND (1) VEH-VIEW WITH PERSONNEL-ID = PERSONNEL-ID (FND1.)
   DISPLAY NOTITLE NAME CITY MAKE
 END-FIND
FND-FIND
END
```

The above program selects data from multiple files. The outer FIND loop selects from the EMPLOYEES file all persons who live in New York or Beverley Hills. For each record selected in the outer loop, the inner FIND loop is entered, selecting the car data of those persons from the VEHICLES file. The program produces the following output:

NAME	CITY	MAKE	
RUBIN	NEW YORK	FORD	
OLLE ADKINSON WALLACE	BEVERLEY HILLS BEVERLEY HILLS NEW YORK	GENERAL MOTORS FORD MAZDA	
SPEISER	BEVERLEY HILLS	FORD	

Referencing Statements within a Program

Statement reference notation is used to refer to previous statements in a program in order to specify processing over a particular range of data, to override Natural's default referencing (as described for each statement in the Natural Statements documentation, where applicable), or for documentation purposes.

Any Natural statement which causes a processing loop to be initiated and/or causes data elements in a database to be accessed. For example, the following statements can be referenced:

- READ
- FIND
- HISTOGRAM
- SORT
- REPEAT
- FOR

When multiple processing loops are used in a program, reference notation is used to uniquely identify the particular database field to be processed by referring back to the statement that originally accessed that field in the database. (If a field can be referenced in such a way, this is indicated in the "Reference Permitted" column of the "Operand Definition Table" in the statement description in the Natural Statements documentation.)

In addition, reference notation can be specified in some statements. For example:

- AT START OF DATA
- AT END OF DATA
- AT BREAK
- ESCAPE BOTTOM

Without reference notation, an AT START OF DATA, AT END OF DATA or AT BREAK statement will be related to the *outermost* active READ, FIND, HISTOGRAM, SORT or READ WORK FILE loop. With reference notation, you can relate it to another active processing loop.

If reference notation is specified with an ESCAPE BOTTOM statement, processing will continue with the first statement following the processing loop identified by the reference notation.

Statement reference notation may be specified in the form of a statement label or a source-code line number.

A **statement label** consists of several characters, the last of which must be a period (.). The period serves to identify the entry as a label.

A statement that is to be referenced is marked with a label by placing the label at the beginning of the line that contains the statement. For example:

```
0030 ...
0040 READ1. READ VIEWXYZ BY NAME
0050 ...
```

In the statement that references the marked statement, the label is placed in parentheses at the location indicated in the statement's syntax diagram (as described in the Natural Statements documentation). For example:

```
AT BREAK (READ1.) OF NAME
```

If **source-code line number** are used for referencing, they must be specified as 4-digit numbers (leading zeros must not be omitted) and in parentheses. For example:

```
AT BREAK (0040) OF NAME
```

In a statement where the label/line number relates a particular field to a previous statement, the label/line number is placed in parentheses after the field name. For example:

```
DISPLAY NAME (READ1.) JOB-TITLE (READ1.) MAKE MODEL
```

Line numbers and labels can be used interchangeably.

Example of Referencing with Line Numbers

The following program uses line numbers for referencing.

In this particular example, the line numbers refer to the statements that would be referenced in any case by default.

```
0010 ** Example Program 'LABELX01'
0020 DEFINE DATA LOCAL
0030 1 MYVIEW1 VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
0040 2 NAME
0050 2 FIRST-NAME
0060 2 PERSONNEL-ID
0070 1 MYVIEW2 VIEW OF VEHICLES
0080 2 PERSONNEL-ID
0090
      2 MAKE
0100 END-DEFINE
0110 *
0120 LIMIT 15
0130 READ MYVIEW1 BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
0140 FIND MYVIEW2 WITH PERSONNEL-ID = PERSONNEL-ID (0130)
0150 IF NO RECORDS FOUND
         MOVE '***NO CAR***' TO MAKE
0170
       END-NOREC
0180
       DISPLAY NOTITLE NAME (0130) (IS=ON) FIRST-NAME (0130) (IS=ON)
0190
                       MAKE (0140)
0200 END-FIND /* (0140)
0210 END-READ /* (0130)
```

Example with Statement Reference Labels

The following example illustrates the use of statement reference labels.

It is identical to the previous program, except that labels are used for referencing instead of line numbers.

```
0010 ** Example Program 'LABELX02'
0020 DEFINE DATA LOCAL
0030 1 MYVIEW1 VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
0040 2 NAME
0050 2 FIRST-NAME
0060 2 PERSONNEL-ID
0070 1 MYVIEW2 VIEW OF VEHICLES
0800
      2 PERSONNEL-ID
     2 MAKE
0090
0100 END-DEFINE
0110 *
0120 LIMIT 15
0130 RD. READ MYVIEW1 BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
0140 FD. FIND MYVIEW2 WITH PERSONNEL-ID = PERSONNEL-ID (FD.)
0150 IF NO RECORDS FOUND
0160
        MOVE '***NO CAR***' TO MAKE
0170 END-NOREC
0180 DISPLAY NOTITLE NAME (RD.) (IS=ON) FIRST-NAME (RD.) (IS=ON)
0190
                        MAKE (FD.)
0200 END-FIND /* (FD.)
0210 END-READ /* (RD.)
0220 END
```

Both programs produce the following output:

NAME	FIRST-NAME	MAKE
JONES	VIRGINIA	***NO CAR***
	MARSHA	CHRYSLER
		CHRYSLER
	ROBERT	GENERAL MOTORS
	LILLY	***NO CAR***
	EDWARD	GENERAL MOTORS
	MARTHA	***NO CAR***
	LAUREL	GENERAL MOTORS
	KEVIN	DATSUN
	GREGORY	FORD
JOPER	MANFRED	***NO CAR***
JOUSSELIN	DANIEL	RENAULT
JUBE	GABRIEL	***NO CAR***
JUNG	ERNST	***NO CAR***
JUNKIN	JEREMY	***NO CAR***
KAISER	REINER	***NO CAR***

Control Breaks Control Breaks

Control Breaks

This document describes how the execution of a statement can be made dependent on a control break, and how control breaks can be used for the evaluation of Natural system functions.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Control Breaks
- AT BREAK Statement
- Automatic Break Processing
- Example of System Functions with AT BREAK Statement
- BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING Statement
- Example of BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING Statement
- User-Initiated Break Processing PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING Statement
- Example of PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING Statement

Use of Control Breaks

A control break occurs when the value of a control field changes.

The execution of statements can be made dependent on a control break.

A control break can also be used for the evaluation of Natural system functions.

System functions are discussed in System Variables and System Functions. For detailed descriptions of the system functions available, refer to the Natural System Functions documentation.

AT BREAK Statement

With the statement AT BREAK, you specify the processing which is to be performed whenever a control break occurs, that is, whenever the value of a control field which you specify with the AT BREAK statement changes. As a control field, you can use a database field or a user-defined variable.

The following topics are covered below:

- Control Break Based on a Database Field
- Control Break Based on a User-Defined Variable
- Multiple Control Break Levels

Control Break Based on a Database Field

The field specified as control field in an AT BREAK statement is usually a database field.

Example:

```
AT BREAK OF DEPT statements
END-BREAK
```

In this example, the control field is the database field DEPT; if the value of the field changes, for example, FROM "SALE01" to "SALE02", the *statements* specified in the AT BREAK statement would be executed.

Instead of an entire field, you can also use only part of a field as a control field. With the slash-n-slash notation "/n/" you can determine that only the first n positions of a field are to be checked for a change in value.

Example:

```
AT BREAK OF DEPT /4/
statements
END-BREAK
```

In this example, the specified **statements** would only be executed if the value of the first 4 positions of the field DEPT changes, for example, FROM "SALE" to "TECH"; if, however, the field value changes from "SALE01" to "SALE02", this would be ignored and no AT BREAK processing performed.

Example of AT BREAK Statement using a Database Field:

```
** Example Program 'ATBREX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 CITY
  2 COUNTRY
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 SALARY (1:1)
END-DEFINE
READ (5) MYVIEW BY CITY WHERE COUNTRY = 'USA'
 DISPLAY CITY (AL=9) NAME 'POSITION' JOB-TITLE 'SALARY' SALARY (1)
  AT BREAK OF CITY
    WRITE / OLD(CITY) (EM=X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X)
          5X 'AVERAGE: ' T*SALARY AVER(SALARY(1)) //
          COUNT(SALARY(1)) 'RECORDS FOUND' /
  END-BREAK
  AT END OF DATA
   WRITE 'TOTAL (ALL RECORDS): ' T*SALARY(1) TOTAL(SALARY(1))
  END-ENDDATA
END-READ
END
```

In the above program, the first WRITE statement is executed whenever the value of the field CITY changes.

In the AT BREAK statement, the system functions OLD, AVER and COUNT are evaluated (and output in the WRITE statement).

In the AT END OF DATA statement, the system function TOTAL is evaluated.

The program produces the following output:

Page 1				97-08-19 18:17:27
CITY	NAME		POSITION	SALARY
AIKEN	SENKO		PROGRAMMER	31500
AIKEN		AVERAGE:		31500
1 RE	CORDS FOUND			
~ ~	HAMMOND ROLLING FREEMAN LINCOLN		SECRETARY MANAGER MANAGER ANALYST	22000 34000 34000 41000
A L B U Q U	E R Q U E	AVERAGE:		32750
TOTAL (ALL	RECORDS):			162500

Control Break Based on a User-Defined Variable

A user-defined variable can also be used as control field in an AT BREAK statement.

In the following program, the user-defined variable #LOCATION is used as control field.

```
** Example Program 'ATBREX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 CITY
  2 COUNTRY
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 SALARY (1:1)
1 #LOCATION (A20)
END-DEFINE
READ (5) MYVIEW BY CITY WHERE COUNTRY = 'USA'
 BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING
   COMPRESS CITY 'USA' INTO #LOCATION
  END-BEFORE
  DISPLAY #LOCATION 'POSITION' JOB-TITLE 'SALARY' SALARY (1)
  AT BREAK OF #LOCATION
   SKIP 1
  END-BREAK
END-READ
END
```

The above program produces the following output:

Page 1		97-08-19 18:21:23
#LOCATION	POSITION	SALARY
AIKEN USA	PROGRAMMER	31500
ALBUQUERQUE USA	A SECRETARY	22000
ALBUQUERQUE USA	A MANAGER	34000
ALBUQUERQUE USA	A MANAGER	34000
ALBUQUERQUE USA	A ANALYST	41000

Multiple Control Break Levels

As explained above, the notation "/n/" allows some portion of a field to be checked for a control break. It is possible to combine several AT BREAK statements, using an entire field as control field for one break and part of the same field as control field for another break.

In such a case, the break at the lower level (entire field) must be specified before the break at the higher level (part of field); that is, in the first AT BREAK statement the entire field must be specified as control field, and in the second one part of the field.

The following example program illustrates this, using the field DEPT as well as the first 4 positions of that field (DEPT /4/).

```
** Example Program 'ATBREX03'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 DEPT
  2 SALARY (1:1)
  2 CURR-CODE (1:1)
END-DEFINE
READ MYVIEW BY DEPT STARTING FROM 'SALE40' ENDING AT 'TECH10'
                   WHERE SALARY(1) GT 47000 AND CURR-CODE(1) = 'USD'
  AT BREAK OF DEPT
   WRITE '*** LOWEST BREAK LEVEL ***' /
  END-BREAK
  AT BREAK OF DEPT /4/
   WRITE '*** HIGHEST BREAK LEVEL ***'
  END-BREAK
  DISPLAY DEPT NAME 'POSITION' JOB-TITLE
END-READ
END
```

```
97-08-19 18:24:16
Page
DEPARTMENT
                   NAME
                                            POSITION
  CODE
TECH05 HERZOG
                                    MANAGER
TECH05
             LAWLER
                                    MANAGER
TECHOS LAWLER
TECHOS MEYER
                                    MANAGER
*** LOWEST BREAK LEVEL ***
            DEKKER
                                    DBA
*** LOWEST BREAK LEVEL ***
*** HIGHEST BREAK LEVEL ***
```

In the following program, one blank line is output whenever the value of the field DEPT changes; and whenever the value in the first 4 positions of DEPT changes, a record count is carried out by evaluating the system function COUNT.

```
** Example Program 'ATBREX04'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 DEPT
  2 REDEFINE DEPT
   3 #GENDEP (A4)
  2 NAME
  2 SALARY (1)
END-DEFINE
WRITE TITLE '** PERSONS WITH SALARY > 30000, SORTED BY DEPARTMENT **' /
LIMIT 9
READ MYVIEW BY DEPT FROM 'A' WHERE SALARY(1) > 30000
 DISPLAY 'DEPT' DEPT NAME 'SALARY' SALARY(1)
 AT BREAK OF DEPT
   SKIP 1
  END-BREAK
  AT BREAK OF DEPT /4/
   WRITE COUNT(SALARY(1)) 'RECORDS FOUND IN:' OLD(#GENDEP) /
 END-BREAK
END-READ
END
```

	**	PERSON	S WITH	SAI	JARY	>	30000,	SORTED	ВҮ	DEPARTMENT	**
DEPT		NA	ME 			[A3	LARY				
ADMA01	TEMO	гN					180000				
ADMA01							105000				
ADMA01							320000				
ADMA01							149000				
ADMA01							642000				
ADMA02	HERM	ANSEN					391500				
ADMA02	PLOU	G				:	162900				
ADMA02	HANS	EN				:	234000				
	8 RE	CORDS	FOUND	IN:	ADMA	Ā					
COMP01	HEUR	TEBISE					168800				
	1 RE	CORDS	FOUND	IN:	COME)					

Automatic Break Processing

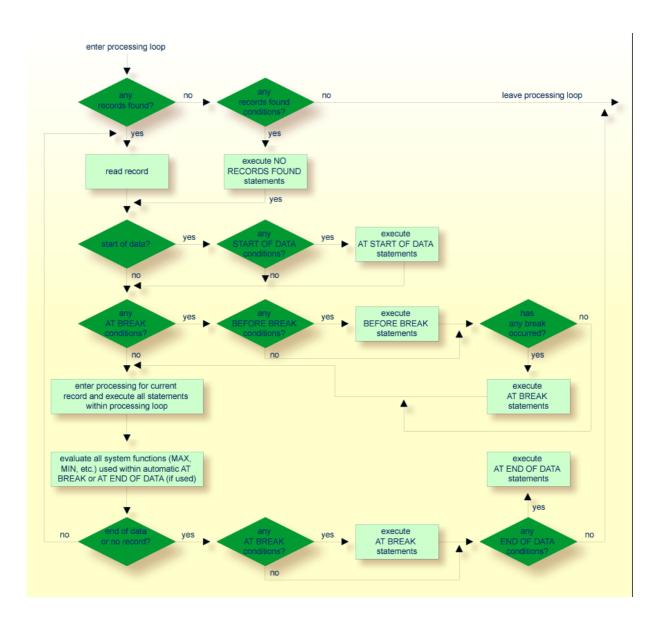
Automatic break processing is in effect for a processing loop which contains an AT BREAK statement. This applies to the following statements:

- FIND
- READ
- HISTOGRAM
- SORT
- READ WORK FILE

The value of the control field specified with the AT BREAK statement is checked only for records which satisfy the selection criteria of both the WITH clause and the WHERE clause.

Natural system functions (AVER, MAX, MIN, etc.) are evaluated for each record after all statements within the processing loop have been executed. System functions are not evaluated for any record which is rejected by WHERE criteria.

The figure below illustrates the flow logic of automatic break processing.



Example of System Functions with AT BREAK Statement

The following example shows the use of the Natural system functions OLD, MIN, AVER, MAX, SUM and COUNT in an AT BREAK statement (and of the system function TOTAL in an AT END OF DATA statement).

```
** Example Program 'ATBREX05'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 CITY
  2 SALARY
                (1:1)
  2 CURR-CODE (1:1)
END-DEFINE
LIMIT 3
READ MYVIEW BY CITY = 'SALT LAKE CITY'
  DISPLAY NOTITLE CITY NAME 'SALARY' SALARY(1) 'CURRENCY' CURR-CODE(1)
    AT BREAK OF CITY
      \label{eq:write} \textit{WRITE / OLD(CITY)} \quad (\textit{EM=X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X})
        31T ' - MINIMUM: ' MIN(SALARY(1)) CURR-CODE(1) /
        31T ' - AVERAGE:' AVER(SALARY(1)) CURR-CODE(1) /
```

```
31T ' - MAXIMUM:' MAX(SALARY(1)) CURR-CODE(1) /
31T ' - SUM:' SUM(SALARY(1)) CURR-CODE(1) /
33T COUNT(SALARY(1)) 'RECORDS FOUND' /
END-BREAK
AT END OF DATA
WRITE 22T 'TOTAL (ALL RECORDS):' T*SALARY
TOTAL(SALARY(1)) CURR-CODE(1)
END-ENDDATA
END-READ
END
```

CITY	NAME	SALARY CURRENCY
SALT LAKE CITY SALT LAKE CITY		50000 USD 24000 USD
SALT LAKE	- SUM:	
SAN DIEGO	GEE	60000 USD
SAN DIEGO	- AVERAGE: - MAXIMUM: - SUM:	60000 USD 60000 USD 60000 USD 60000 USD ECORDS FOUND
	TOTAL (ALL RECORDS):	134000 USD

BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING Statement

With the PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING statement, you can specify statements that are to be executed immediately before a control break; that is, before the value of the control field is checked, before the statements specified in the AT BREAK block are executed, and before any Natural system functions are evaluated.

Example of BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING Statement

```
** Example Program 'BEFORX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 SALARY (1:1)

2 BONUS (1:1,1:1)

1 #INCOME (P11)

END-DEFINE

*

LIMIT 5

READ MYVIEW BY NAME FROM 'B'

BEFORE BREAK PROCESSING

COMPUTE #INCOME = SALARY(1) + BONUS(1,1)
```

NAME	FIRST-NAME	ANNUAL INCOME	SALARY + BONUS
BACHMANN	HANS	297546 =	293546 +4000
BAECKER	JOHANNES	420244 =	413644
BAECKER	KARL	52650 =	48600 +4050
BAGAZJA	MARJAN	152700 =	129700 +23000
BAILLET	PATRICK	198500 =	188000 +10500

User-Initiated Break Processing - PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING Statement

With automatic break processing, the statements specified in an AT BREAK block are executed whenever the value of the specified control field changes - regardless of the position of the AT BREAK statement in the processing loop.

With a PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING statement, you can perform break processing at a specified position in a processing loop: the PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING statement is executed when it is encountered in the processing flow of the program.

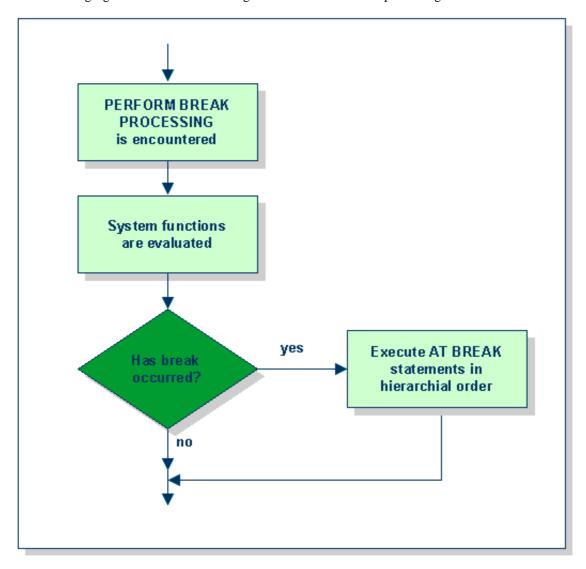
Immediately after the PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING, you specify one or more AT BREAK statement blocks:

```
PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING
AT BREAK OF field1
statements
END-BREAK
AT BREAK OF field2
statements
END-BREAK
```

When a PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING is executed, Natural checks if a break has occurred; that is, if the value of the specified control field has changed; and if it has, the specified statements are executed.

With PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING, system functions are evaluated *before* Natural checks if a break has occurred.

The following figure illustrates the flow logic of user-initiated break processing:



Example of PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING Statement

```
** Example Program 'PERFBX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 DEPT

2 SALARY (1:1)

1 #CNTL (N2)

END-DEFINE

*

LIMIT 7

READ MYVIEW BY DEPT

AT BREAK OF DEPT /* <- automatic break processing SKIP 1
```

```
WRITE 'SUMMARY FOR ALL SALARIES
         'SUM:' SUM(SALARY(1))
         'TOTAL:' TOTAL(SALARY(1))
   ADD 1 TO #CNTL
  END-BREAK
  IF SALARY (1) GREATER THAN 100000 OR BREAK #CNTL
   PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING /* <- user-initiated break processing
     AT BREAK OF #CNTL
       WRITE 'SUMMARY FOR SALARY GREATER 100000'
             'SUM:' SUM(SALARY(1))
             'TOTAL:' TOTAL(SALARY(1))
      END-BREAK
  END-IF
  IF SALARY (1) GREATER THAN 150000 OR BREAK #CNTL
   PERFORM BREAK PROCESSING /* <- user-initiated break processing
     AT BREAK OF #CNTL
       WRITE 'SUMMARY FOR SALARY GREATER 150000'
             'SUM:' SUM(SALARY(1))
              'TOTAL:' TOTAL(SALARY(1))
     END-BREAK
  DISPLAY NAME DEPT SALARY(1)
END-READ
END
```

Page 1						97-08-18	17:11:11
NAM	E DE	PARTMENT	ANNUAL				
		CODE 	SALARY	_			
JENSEN	AI	MA01	18000)			
PETERSEN	AI	MA01	10500)			
MORTENSEN	AI	MA01	32000)			
MADSEN	AI	MA01	14900)			
BUHL	AI	MA01	64200)			
SUMMARY FOR	ALL SALARIE	S	SUM:	1396000	TOTAL:	1396000	
SUMMARY FOR	SALARY GREA	TER 100000	SUM:	1396000	TOTAL:	1396000	
SUMMARY FOR	SALARY GREA	TER 150000	SUM:	1142000	TOTAL:	1142000	
HERMANSEN	AI	MA02	39150)			
PLOUG	AI	MA02	16290)			
SUMMARY FOR	ALL SALARIE	S	SUM:	554400	TOTAL:	1950400	
SUMMARY FOR	SALARY GREA	TER 100000	SUM:	554400	TOTAL:	1950400	
SUMMARY FOR	SALARY GREA	TER 150000	SUM:	554400	TOTAL:	1696400	

Further Example of AT BREAK Statement

See the following example program in library SYSEXPG:

• ATBREX06

Data Computation Data Computation

Data Computation

This document discusses arithmetic statements that are used for computing data and statements that are used to transfer the value of an operand into one or more fields.

The following topics are covered:

- Statements Used for Computing Data or Transferring Values
- COMPUTE Statement
- Statements MOVE and COMPUTE
- Statements ADD, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY and DIVIDE
- Example of MOVE, SUBTRACT and COMPUTE Statements
- COMPRESS Statement
- Example of COMPRESS and MOVE Statements
- Example of COMPRESS Statement
- Mathematical Functions
- Further Examples of COMPUTE, MOVE and COMPRESS Statements

Statements Used for Computing Data or Transferring Values

This document discusses the arithmetic statements:

- COMPUTE
- ADD
- SUBTRACT
- MULTIPLY
- DIVIDE

In addition, the following statements are discussed which are used to transfer the value of an operand into one or more fields:

- MOVE
- COMPRESS

Format of Fields

For optimum processing, user-defined variables used in arithmetic statements should be defined with format P (packed numeric).

COMPUTE Statement

The COMPUTE statement is used to perform arithmetic operations. The following connecting operators are available:

Exponentiation **

Multiplication *

Division /

Addition +

Subtraction -

Parentheses may be used to indicate logical grouping.

Example 1:

```
COMPUTE LEAVE-DUE = LEAVE-DUE * 1.1
```

In this example, the value of the field LEAVE-DUE is multiplied by 1.1, and the result is placed in the field LEAVE-DUE.

Example 2:

```
COMPUTE \#A = SQRT (\#B)
```

In this example, the square root of the value of the field #B is evaluated, and the result is assigned to the field #A.

"SQRT" is a mathematical function supported in the following arithmetic statements:

- COMPUTE
- ADD
- SUBTRACT
- MULTIPLY
- DIVIDE

For an overview of mathematical functions, see Mathematical Functions below.

Example 3:

```
COMPUTE \#INCOME = BONUS (1,1) + SALARY (1)
```

In this example, the first bonus of the current year and the current salary amount are added and assigned to the field #INCOME.

Statements MOVE and COMPUTE

The statements MOVE and COMPUTE can be used to transfer the value of an operand into one or more fields. The operand may be a constant such as a text item or a number, a database field, a user-defined variable, a system variable, or, in certain cases, a system function.

The difference between the two statements is that in the MOVE statement the value to be moved is specified on the left; in the COMPUTE statement the value to be assigned is specified on the right, as shown in the following examples.

Examples:

```
MOVE NAME TO #LAST-NAME
COMPUTE #LAST-NAME = NAME
```

Statements ADD, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY and DIVIDE

The ADD, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY and DIVIDE statements are used to perform arithmetic operations.

Examples:

```
ADD +5 -2 -1 GIVING #A
SUBTRACT 6 FROM 11 GIVING #B
MULTIPLY 3 BY 4 GIVING #C
DIVIDE 3 INTO #D GIVING #E
```

All four statements have a ROUNDED option, which you can use if you wish the result of the operation to be rounded.

For rules on rounding, see Rules for Arithmetic Assignment.

The Natural Statements documentation provides more detailed information on these statements.

Example of MOVE, SUBTRACT and COMPUTE Statements

The following program demonstrates the use of user-defined variables in arithmetic statements. It calculates the ages and wages of three employees and outputs these.

```
** Example Program 'COMPUX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 BIRTH
  2 JOB-TITLE
 2 SALARY (1:1)
2 BONUS (1:1,1:1)
#DATE (N8)
                  (N8)
1 #DATE
1 REDEFINE #DATE
  2 #YEAR (N4)
2 #MONTH (N2)
  2 #DAY
                  (N2)
1 #BIRTH-YEAR (A4)
1 REDEFINE #BIRTH-YEAR
  2 #BIRTH-YEAR-N (N4)
1 #INCOME
                  (P9)
END-DEFINE
MOVE *DATN TO #DATE
READ (3) MYVIEW BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'
  MOVE EDITED BIRTH (EM=YYYY) TO #BIRTH-YEAR
  SUBTRACT #BIRTH-YEAR-N FROM #YEAR GIVING #AGE
  COMPUTE #INCOME = BONUS (1:1,1:1) + SALARY (1:1)
  DISPLAY NAME 'POSITION' JOB-TITLE #AGE #INCOME
END-READ
END
```

COMPRESS Statement Data Computation

Page	1			99-01-22	12:42:50
	NAME	POSITION	#AGE	#INCOME	
JONES		MANAGER	58	55000	
JONES JONES		DIRECTOR PROGRAMMER	53 43	50000 31000	

COMPRESS Statement

The COMPRESS statement is used to transfer (combine) the contents of two or more operands into a single alphanumeric field.

Leading zeros in a numeric field and trailing blanks in an alphanumeric field are suppressed before the field value is moved to the receiving field.

By default, the transferred values are separated from one another by a single blank in the receiving field. Other separating possibilities are described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Example:

```
COMPRESS 'NAME: ' FIRST-NAME #LAST-NAME INTO #FULLNAME
```

In this example, a text constant ('NAME:'), a database field (FIRST-NAME) and a user-defined variable (#LAST-NAME) are combined into one user-defined variable (#FULLNAME) using a COMPRESS statement.

For further information on the COMPRESS statement, please refer to the COMPRESS statement description in the Natural Statements documentation.

Example of COMPRESS and MOVE Statements

```
** Example Program 'ComPRX01'

DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 MYVIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME

2 FIRST-NAME

2 MIDDLE-I

1 #LAST-NAME (A15)

1 #FULL-NAME (A30)

END-DEFINE

*

READ (3) MYVIEW BY NAME STARTING FROM 'JONES'

MOVE NAME TO #LAST-NAME

COMPRESS 'NAME:' FIRST-NAME MIDDLE-I #LAST-NAME INTO #FULL-NAME

DISPLAY #FULL-NAME (UC==) FIRST-NAME 'I' MIDDLE-I (AL=1) NAME

END-READ
```

The above program illustrates the use of the statements MOVE and COMPRESS. Notice the output format of the compressed field:

Page	1			97-08-18	17:47:03
	#FULL-NAME	FIRST-NAME	I	NAME	
				_	
	IRGINIA J JONES	VIRGINIA	J JONE	_	
NAME: M	IARSHA JONES	MARSHA	JONE	S	
NAME: R	OBERT B JONES	ROBERT	B JONE	S	

In multiple-line displays, it may be useful to combine fields/text in a user-defined variables by using a COMPRESS statement.

Example of COMPRESS Statement

In the following program, three user-defined variables are used: #FULLSAL, #FULLNAME, and #FULLCITY. #FULLSAL, for example, contains the text 'SALARY:' and the database fields SALARY and CURR-CODE. The WRITE statement then references only the compressed variables.

```
** Example Program 'COMPRX02'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 VIEWEMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 NAME
  2 FIRST-NAME
  2 SALARY (1:1)
  2 CURR-CODE (1:1)
  2 CITY
  2 ADDRESS-LINE (1:1)
  2 ZIP
1 #FULLSAL (A25)
1 #FULLNAME (A25)
1 #FULLCITY (A25)
END-DEFINE
READ (3) VIEWEMP BY CITY STARTING FROM 'NEW YORK'
  COMPRESS 'SALARY:' CURR-CODE(1) SALARY(1) INTO #FULLSAL
  COMPRESS FIRST-NAME NAME INTO #FULLNAME
  COMPRESS ZIP CITY INTO #FULLCITY
 DISPLAY 'NAME AND ADDRESS' NAME (EM=X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X^X)
  WRITE 1/5 #FULLNAME 1/37 #FULLSAL
       2/5 ADDRESS-LINE (1)
       3/5 #FULLCITY
  SKIP 1
END-READ
END
```

Mathematical Functions Data Computation

97-08-19 18:01:17 Page 1 NAME AND ADDRESS _____ RUBIN SYLVIA RUBIN SALARY: USD 17000 2003 SARAZEN PLACE 10036 NEW YORK WALLACE MARY WALLACE SALARY: USD 38000 12248 LAUREL GLADE C 10036 NEW YORK K E L L O G G HENRIETTA KELLOGG SALARY: USD 52000 1001 JEFF RYAN DR. 19711 NEWARK

Mathematical Functions

The following Natural mathematical functions are supported in arithmetic processing statements (ADD, COMPUTE, DIVIDE, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY).

Mathematical Function	Natural System Function
Absolute value of <i>field</i> .	ABS(field)
Arc tangent of field.	ATN(field)
Cosine of <i>field</i> .	COS(field)
Exponential of field.	EXP(field)
Fractional part of field.	FRAC(field)
Integer part of field.	INT(field)
Natural logarithm of field.	LOG(field)
Sign of field.	SGN(field)
Sine of <i>field</i> .	SIN(field)
Square root of field.	SQRT(field)
Tangent of field.	TAN(field)
Numeric value of an alphanumeric field.	VAL(field)

See also the Natural System Functions documentation for a detailed explanation of each mathematical function and for platform-specific information.

Further Examples of COMPUTE, MOVE and COMPRESS Statements

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- WRITEX11
- IFX03
- COMPRX03

System Variables and System Functions

This document describes the purpose of Natural system variables and Natural system functions and how they are used in Natural programs.

The following topics are covered:

- System Variables
- System Functions
- Example of System Variables and System Functions
- Further Examples of System Variables
- Further Examples of System Functions

System Variables

Natural system variables provide variable information, for example, about the current Natural session:

- the current library,
- the user and terminal identification;
- the current status of a loop processing;
- the current report processing status;
- the current date and time.

The information contained in a system variable may be used in Natural programs by specifying the appropriate system variables. For example, date and time system variables may be specified in a DISPLAY, WRITE, PRINT, MOVE or COMPUTE statement.

The names of all system variables begin with an asterisk (*). The typical use of system variables is illustrated in the example programs below.

The Natural system variables are grouped as follows:

- Application Related System Variables
- Date and Time System Variables
- Input/Ouput Related System Variables
- Natural Environment Related System Variables
- System Environment Related System Variables
- XML Related System Variables

For detailed descriptions of all system variables, see in the Natural System Variables reference documentation.

System Functions

Natural system functions comprise a set of statistical and mathematical functions that can be applied to the data after a record has been processed, but before break processing occurs.

System functions may be specified in a DISPLAY, WRITE, PRINT, MOVE or COMPUTE statement that is used in conjunction with an AT END OF PAGE, AT END OF DATA or AT BREAK statement.

In the case of an AT END OF PAGE statement, the corresponding DISPLAY statement must include the GIVE SYSTEM FUNCTIONS clause (as shown in the example below).

The following functional groups of system functions exist:

- System Functions for Use in Processing Loops
- Mathematical Functions
- Miscellaneous Functions

For detailed information on all system functions available, see Natural System Functions.

See also Using System Functions in Processing Loops in the System Functions reference documentation.

The typical use of system functions is explained in the example programs given below and in the examples contained in library SYSEXPG.

Example of System Variables and System Functions

The following example program illustrates the use of system variables and system functions:

```
** Example Program 'SYSVAX01'
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 MYVIEW VIEW OF EMPLOYEES
  2 CITY
  2 NAME
  2 JOB-TITLE
  2 INCOME (1:1)
    3 CURR-CODE
    3 SALARY
    3 BONUS (1:1)
END-DEFINE
WRITE TITLE 'EMPLOYEE SALARY REPORT AS OF' *DAT4E /
READ (3) MYVIEW BY CITY STARTING FROM 'E'
 DISPLAY GIVE SYSTEM FUNCTIONS
         NAME (AL=15) JOB-TITLE (AL=15) INCOME (1:1)
  AT START OF DATA
   WRITE 'REPORT CREATED AT: ' *TIME 'HOURS' /
  END-START
  AT END OF DATA
   WRITE / 'LAST PERSON SELECTED:' OLD (NAME) /
  END-ENDDATA
END-READ
AT END OF PAGE
 WRITE 'AVERAGE SALARY:' AVER(SALARY(1))
END-ENDPAGE
END
```

Explanation:

- The system variable *DATE is output with the WRITE TITLE statement.
- The system variable *TIME is output with the AT START OF DATA statement.
- The system function OLD is used in the AT END OF DATA statement.
- The system function AVER is used in the AT END OF PAGE statement.

Note how the system variables and system function are displayed:

EMPLOYEE SALAR	Y REPORT AS OF 1	8/01/1999		
NAME	CURRENT		INCOME	
	POSITION	CURRENCY CODE	ANNUAL SALARY	BONUS
REPORT CREATED	AT: 11:51:29.3	HOURS		
DUYVERMAN	PROGRAMMER	USD	34000	0
PRATT	SALES PERSON	USD	38000	9000
MARKUSH	TRAINEE	USD	22000	0
LAST PERSON SE	LECTED: MARKUSH			
AVERAGE SALARY	: 31333			

Further Examples of System Variables

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- EDITMX05
- READX04
- WTITLX01

Further Examples of System Functions

See the following example programs in library SYSEXPG:

- ATBREX06
- ATENPX01

Stack Stack

Stack

The Natural stack is a kind of "intermediate storage" in which you can store Natural commands, user-defined commands, and input data to be used by an INPUT statement.

The following topics are covered:

- Use of Natural Stack
- Stack Processing
- Placing Data in the Stack
- Clearing the Stack

Use of Natural Stack

In the stack you can store a series of functions which are frequently executed one after the other, such as a series of logon commands.

The data/commands stored in the stack are "stacked" on top of one another. You can decide whether to put them on top or at the bottom of the stack. The data/command in the stack can only be processed in the order in which they are stacked, beginning from the top of the stack.

In a program, you may reference the system variable *DATA to determine the content of the stack (see the System Variables documentation for further information).

The total size of the stack is defined by the remaining portion in the ESIZE buffer after allocation for the global data area and the program source area.

Stack Processing

The processing of the commands/data stored in the stack differs depending on the function being performed.

If a command is expected, that is, the NEXT prompt is about to be displayed, Natural first checks if a command is on the top of the stack. If there is, the NEXT prompt is suppressed and the command is read and deleted from the stack; the command is then executed as if it had been entered manually in response to the NEXT prompt.

If an INPUT statement containing input fields is being executed, Natural first checks if there are any input data on the top of the stack. If there are, these data are passed to the INPUT statement (in delimiter mode); the data read from the stack must be format-compatible with the variables in the INPUT statement; the data are then deleted from the stack.

If an INPUT statement was executed using data from the stack, and this INPUT statement is re-executed via a REINPUT statement, the INPUT statement screen will be re-executed displaying the same data from the stack as when it was executed originally. With the REINPUT statement, no further data are read from the stack.

When a Natural program terminates normally, the stack is flushed beginning from the top until either a command is on the top of the stack or the stack is cleared. When a Natural program is terminated via the terminal command "%%" or with an error, the stack is cleared entirely.

Placing Data on the Stack

The following methods can be used to place data/commands on the stack:

- STACK Parameter
- STACK Statement
- FETCH and RUN Statements

STACK Parameter

The Natural profile parameter STACK may be used to place data/commands on the stack. The STACK parameter, which is described in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation, can be specified by the Natural administrator in the Natural parameter module at the installation of Natural; or you can specify it as a dynamic parameter when you invoke Natural.

When data/commands are to be placed on the stack via the STACK parameter, multiple commands must be separated from one another by a semicolon (;). If a command is to be passed within a sequence of data or command elements, it must be preceded by a semicolon.

Data for multiple INPUT statements must be separated from one another by a colon (:). Data that are to be read by a separate INPUT statement must be preceded by a colon. If a command is to be stacked which requires parameters, no colon is to be placed between the command and the parameters.

Semicolon and colon must not be used within the input data themselves as they will be interpreted as separation characters.

STACK Statement

The STACK statement can be used within a program to place data/commands in the stack. The data elements specified in one STACK statement will be used for one INPUT statement, which means that if data for multiple INPUT statements are to be placed on the stack, multiple STACK statements must be used.

Data may be placed on the stack either unformatted or formatted:

- If unformatted data are read from the stack, the data string is interpreted in delimiter mode and the characters specified with the session parameters IA (Input Assignment character) and ID (Input Delimiter character) are processed as control characters for keyword assignment and data separation.
- If formatted data are placed on the stack, each content of a field will be separated and passed to one input field in the corresponding INPUT statement.

See the Natural Statements documentation for further information on the STACK statement.

FETCH and RUN Statements

The execution of a FETCH or RUN statement that contains parameters to be passed to the invoked program will result in these parameters being placed on top of the stack.

Clearing the Stack

The contents of the stack can be deleted with the RELEASE statement. See the Natural Statements documentation for details on the RELEASE statement.

Note:

When a Natural program is terminated via the terminal command "%%" or with an error, the stack is cleared entirely.

Processing of Date Information

This section covers various aspects concerning the handling of date information in Natural applications.

The following topics are covered:

- Edit Masks for Date Fields and Date System Variables
- Default Edit Mask for Date DTFORM Parameter
- Date Format for Alphanumeric Representation DF Parameter
- Date Format for Output DFOUT Parameter
- Date Format for Stack DFSTACK Parameter
- Year Sliding Window YSLW Parameter
- Combinations of DFSTACK and YSLW
- Date Format for Default Page Title DFTITLE Parameter

Edit Masks for Date Fields and Date System Variables

If you wish the value of a date field to be output in a specific representation, you usually specify an edit mask for the field. With an edit mask, you determine character by character what the output is to look like.

If you wish to use the current date in a specific representation, you need not define a date field and specify an edit mask for it; instead you can simply use a *date system variable*. Natural provides various date system variables, which contain the current date in different representations. Some of these representations contain a 2-digit year component, some a 4-digit year component.

For more information and a list of all date system variables, see the System Variables documentation.

Default Edit Mask for Date - DTFORM Parameter

The profile parameter DTFORM determines the default format used for dates as part of the default title on Natural reports, for date constants and for date input.

This date format determines the sequence of the day, month and year components of a date, as well as the delimiter characters to be used between these components.

Possible DTFORM settings are:

Setting	Date Format*	Example
DTFORM=I	yyyy-mm-dd	1997-12-31
DTFORM=G	dd.mm.yyyy	31.12.1997
DTFORM=E	dd/mm/yyyy	31/12/1997
DTFORM=U	mm/dd/yyyy	12/31/1997

^{*} dd = day, mm = month, yyyy = year.

The DTFORM parameter can be set in the Natural parameter module/file or dynamically when Natural is invoked. By default, DTFORM=I applies.

Date Format for Alphanumeric Representation - DF Parameter

The session parameter DF only applies to date fields for which no edit mask is specified.

If an edit mask is specified, the representation of the field value is determined by the edit mask. If no edit mask is specified, the representation of the field value is determined by the session parameter DF in combination with the profile parameter DTFORM.

With the DF parameter, you can choose one of the following date representations:

DF=S	8-byte representation with 2-digit year component and delimiters (<i>yy-mm-dd</i>).
DF=I	8-byte representation with 4-digit year component without delimiters (<i>yyyymmdd</i>).
DF=L	10-byte representation with 4-digit year component and delimiters (<i>yyyy-mm-dd</i>).

For each representation, the sequence of the day, month and year components, and the delimiter characters used, are determined by the DTFORM parameter.

By default, DF=S applies (except for INPUT statements; see below).

The session parameter DF is evaluated at compilation.

It can be specified with the following statements:

- FORMAT,
- INPUT, DISPLAY, WRITE and PRINT (at statement and field level),
- MOVE, COMPRESS, STACK, RUN and FETCH (at field level).

When specified in one of these statements, the DF parameter applies to the following:

Statement:	Effect of DF parameter:
DISPLAY, WRITE, PRINT	When the value of a date variable is output with one of these statements, the value is converted to an alphanumeric representation before it is output. The DF parameter determines which representation is used.
MOVE, COMPRESS	When the value of a date variable is transferred to an alphanumeric field with a MOVE or COMPRESS statement, the value is converted to an alphanumeric representation before it is transferred. The DF parameter determines which representation is used.
STACK, RUN, FETCH	When the value of a date variable is placed on the stack, it is converted to alphanumeric representation before it is placed on the stack. The DF parameter determines which representation is used. The same applies when a date variable is specified as a parameter in a FETCH or RUN statement (as these parameters are also passed via the stack).
INPUT	When a data variable is used in an INPUT statement, the DF parameter determines how a value must be entered in the field. However, when a date variable for which no DF parameter is specified is used in an INPUT statement, the date can be entered either with a 2-digit year component and delimiters or with a 4-digit year component and no delimiters. In this case, too, the sequence of the day, month and year components, and the delimiter characters to be used, are determined by the DTFORM parameter.

Note:

With DF=S, only 2 digits are provided for the year information; this means that if a date value contained the century, this information would be lost during the conversion. To retain the century information, you set DF=I or DF=L.

Examples of DF Parameter with WRITE Statements

These examples assume that DTFORM=G applies.

```
/* DF=S (default)
WRITE *DATX /* Output has this format: dd.mm.yy
END

FORMAT DF=I
WRITE *DATX /* Output has this format: ddmmyyyy
END

FORMAT DF=L
WRITE *DATX /* Output has this format: dd.mm.yyyy
```

Example of DF Parameter with MOVE Statement

This example assumes that DTFORM=E applies.

Example of DF Parameter with STACK Statement

This example assumes that DTFORM=I applies.

Example of DF Parameter with INPUT Statement

This example assumes that DTFORM=I applies.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE1 (D)

1 #DATE2 (D)

1 #DATE3 (D)

1 #DATE4 (D)

END-DEFINE

...

INPUT #DATE1 (DF=S) /* Input must have this format: yy-mm-dd

#DATE2 (DF=I) /* Input must have this format: yyymmdd

#DATE3 (DF=L) /* Input must have this format: yyy-mm-dd

#DATE4 /* Input must have this format: yyy-mm-dd

#DATE4 /* Input must have this format: yyy-mm-dd or yyyymmdd
```

Date Format for Output - DFOUT Parameter

The session/profile parameter DFOUT only applies to date fields in INPUT, DISPLAY, WRITE and PRINT statements for which no edit mask is specified, and for which no DF parameter applies.

For date fields which are displayed by INPUT, DISPLAY, PRINT and WRITE statements and for which neither an edit mask is specified nor a DF parameter applies, the profile/session parameter DFOUT determines the format in which the field values are displayed.

Possible DFOUT settings are:

DFOUT=S	Date variables are displayed with a 2-digit year component, and delimiters as determined by the DTFORM parameter (<i>yy-mm-dd</i>).
DFOUT=I	Date variables are displayed with a 4-digit year component and no delimiters (yyyymmdd).

By default, DFOUT=S applies. For either DFOUT setting, the sequence of the day, month and year components in the date values is determined by the DTFORM parameter.

The lengths of the date fields are not affected by the DFOUT setting, as either date value representation fits into an 8-byte field.

The DFOUT parameter can be set in the Natural parameter module/file, dynamically when Natural is invoked, or with the system command GLOBALS. It is evaluated at runtime.

Example:

This example assumes that DTFORM=I applies.

Date Format for Stack - DFSTACK Parameter

The session/profile parameter DFSTACK only applies to date fields used in STACK, FETCH and RUN statements for which no DF parameter has been specified.

The DFSTACK parameter determines the format in which the values of date variables are placed on the stack via a STACK, RUN or FETCH statement.

Possible DFSTACK settings are:

DFSTACK=S	Date variables are placed on the stack with a 2-digit year component, and delimiters as determined by the profile DTFORM parameter (<i>yy-mm-dd</i>).
DFSTACK=C	Same as DFSTACK=S. However, a change in the century will be intercepted at runtime.
DFSTACK=I	Date variables are placed on the stack with a 4-digit year component and no delimiters (yyyymmdd).

By default, DFSTACK=S applies. DFSTACK=S means that when a date value is placed on the stack, it is placed there without the century information (which is lost). When the value is then read from the stack and placed into another date variable, the century is either assumed to be the current one or determined by the setting of the YSLW parameter (see below). This might lead to the century being different from that of the original date value; however, Natural would not issue any error in this case.

DFSTACK=C works the same as DFSTACK=S in that a date value is placed on the stack without the century information. However, if the value is read from the stack and the resulting century is different from that of the original date value (either because of the YSLW parameter, or the original century not being the current one), Natural issues a runtime error.

Note:

This runtime error is already issued at the time when the value is placed on the stack.

DFSTACK=I allows you to place a date value on the stack in a length of 8 bytes without losing the century information.

The DFSTACK parameter can be set in the Natural parameter module/file, dynamically when Natural is invoked, or with the system command GLOBALS. It is evaluated at runtime.

Example:

This example assumes that DTFORM=I and YSLW=0 apply.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE (D) INIT <D'1997-12-31'>

1 #ALPHA1(A8)

1 #ALPHA2(A10)

END-DEFINE

...

STACK TOP DATA #DATE #DATE (DF=L)

...

INPUT #ALPHA1 #ALPHA2

...

/* Result if DFSTACK=S or =C is set: #ALPHA1 contains 97-12-31

/* Result if DFSTACK=I is set ....: #ALPHA1 contains 19971231

/* Result (regardless of DFSTACK) .: #ALPHA2 contains 1997-12-31
```

Year Sliding Window - YSLW Parameter

The profile parameter YSLW allows you determine the century of a 2-digit year value.

The YSLW parameter can be set in the Natural parameter module/file or dynamically when Natural is invoked. It is evaluated at runtime when an alphanumeric date value with a 2-digit year component is moved into a date variable. This applies to data values which are:

- used with the mathematical function VAL(field),
- used with the IS(D) option in a logical condition,
- read from the stack as input data, or
- entered in an input field as input data.

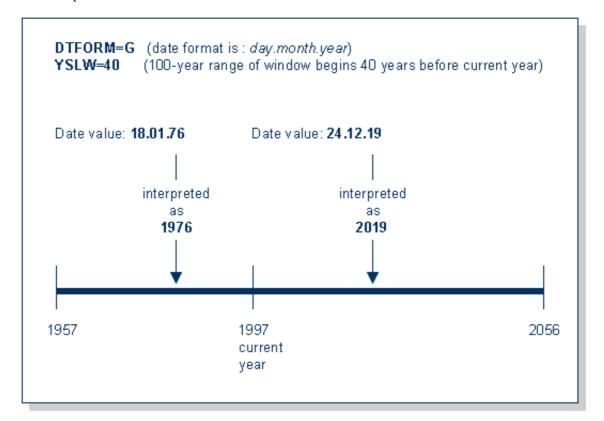
The YSLW parameter determines the range of years covered by a so-called "year sliding window". The sliding-window mechanism assumes a date with a 2-digit year to be within a "window" of 100 years. Within these 100 years, every 2-digit year value can be uniquely related to a specific century.

With the YSLW parameter, you determine how many years in the past that 100-year range is to begin: The YSLW value is subtracted from the current year to determine the first year of the window range.

Possible values of the YSLW parameter are 0 to 99. The default value is YSLW=0, which means that no sliding-window mechanism is used; that is, a date with a 2-digit year is assumed to be in the current century.

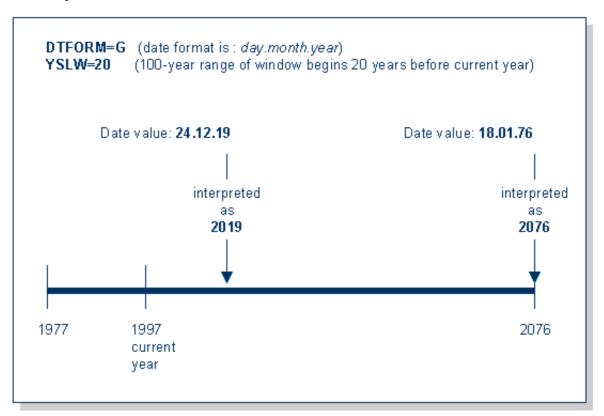
Example 1:

If the current year is 1997 and you specify YSLW=40, the sliding window will cover the years 1957 to 2056. A 2-digit year value *nn* from 57 to 99 is interpreted accordingly as 19*nn*, while a 2-digit year value *nn* from 00 to 56 is interpreted as 20*nn*.



Example 2:

If the current year is 1997 and you specify YSLW=20, the sliding window will cover the years 1977 to 2076. A 2-digit year value *nn* from 77 to 99 is interpreted accordingly as 19*nn*, while a 2-digit year value *nn* from 00 to 76 is interpreted as 20*nn*.



Combinations of DFSTACK and YSLW

The following examples illustrate the effects of using various combinations of the parameters DFSTACK and YSLW.

Note:

All these examples assume that DTFORM=I applies.

Example 1:

This example assumes the current year to be 1997, and that the parameter settings DFSTACK=S (default) and YSLW=20 apply.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE1 (D) INIT <D'1956-12-31'>
1 #DATE2 (D)

END-DEFINE
...

STACK TOP DATA #DATE1 /* century information is lost (year 56 is stacked)
...

INPUT #DATE2 /* year sliding window determines 56 to be 2056
...

/* Result: #DATE2 contains 2056-12-31
```

In this case, the year sliding window is not set appropriately, so that the century information is (inadvertently) changed.

Example 2:

This example assumes the current year to be 1997, and that the parameter settings DFSTACK=S (default) and YSLW=50 apply.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE1 (D) INIT <D'1956-12-31'>
1 #DATE2 (D)

END-DEFINE

...

STACK TOP DATA #DATE1 /* century information is lost (year 56 is stacked)

...

INPUT #DATE2 /* year sliding window determines 56 to be 1956

...

/* Result: #DATE2 contains 1956-12-31
```

In this case, the year sliding window is set appropriately, so that the original century information is correctly restored.

Example 3:

This example assumes the current year to be 1997, and that the parameter settings DFSTACK=C and YSLW=0 (default) apply.

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE1 (D) INIT <D'2056-12-31'>
1 #DATE2 (D)

END-DEFINE
...

STACK TOP DATA #DATE1 /* century information is lost (year 56 is stacked)
...

INPUT #DATE2 /* 56 is assumed to be in current century -> 1956
...

/* Result: RUNTIME ERROR (UNINTENDED CENTURY CHANGE)
```

In this case, the century information is (inadvertently) changed. However, this change is intercepted by the DFSTACK=C setting.

Example 4:

This example assumes the current year to be 1997, and that the parameter settings DFSTACK=C and YSLW=20 (default) apply

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #DATE1 (D) INIT <D'1956-12-31'>

1 #DATE2 (D)

END-DEFINE

...

STACK TOP DATA #DATE1 /* century information is lost (year 56 is stacked)

...

INPUT #DATE2 /* year sliding window determines 56 to be 2056

...

/* Result: RUNTIME ERROR (UNINTENDED CENTURY CHANGE)
```

In this case, the century information is changed due to the year sliding window. However, this change is intercepted by the DFSTACK=C setting.

Date Format for Default Page Title - DFTITLE Parameter

The session/profile parameter DFTITLE determines the format of the date in a default page title (as output with a DISPLAY, WRITE or PRINT statement).

DFTITLE=S	The date is output with a 2-digit year component and delimiters (yy-mm-dd).
DFTITLE=L	The date is output with a 4-digit year component and delimiters (yyyy-mm-dd).
DFTITLE=I	The date is output with a 4-digit year component and no delimiters (yyyymmdd).

For each of these output formats, the sequence of the day, month and year components, and the delimiter characters used, are determined by the DTFORM parameter.

The DFTITLE parameter can be set in the Natural parameter module/file, dynamically when Natural is invoked, or with the system command GLOBALS. It is evaluated at runtime.

Example:

This example assumes that DTFORM=I applies.

```
WRITE 'HELLO'

END

/*

/* Date in page title if DFTITLE=S is set ...: 98-10-31

/* Date in page title if DFTITLE=L is set ...: 1998-10-31

/* Date in page title if DFTITLE=I is set ...: 19981031
```

Note:

The DFTITLE parameter has no effect on a user-defined page title as specified with a WRITE TITLE statement.

Designing User Interfaces - Overview

The user interface of an application, that is, the way an application presents itself to the user, is a key consideration when writing an application.

This document provides information on the various possibilities Natural offers for designing user interfaces that are uniform in presentation and provide powerful mechanisms for user guidance and interaction.

When designing user interfaces, standards and standardization are key factors.

Using Natural, you can offer the end user common functionality across various hardware and operating systems.

This includes the general screen layout (information, data and message areas), function-key assignment and the layout of windows.

This document covers the following topics:

- Screen Design
 Defining the general layout of screens.
- Dialog Design
 Designing user interfaces.

<Untitled> Screen Design

Screen Design

Screen Design

This document provides options to define a general screen layout:

- Control of Function-Key Lines Terminal Command %Y
- Control of the Message Line Terminal Command %M
- Assigning Colors to Fields Terminal Command %=
- Outlining Terminal Command %D=B
- Statistics Line/Infoline Terminal Command %X
- Windows
- Standard/Dynamic Layout Maps
- Multilingual User Interfaces
- Skill-Sensitive User Interfaces

Control of Function-Key Lines - Terminal Command %Y

With the terminal command %Y you can define how and where the Natural function-key lines are to be displayed.

Below is information on:

- Format of Function-Key Lines
- Positioning of Function-Key Lines
- Cursor-Sensitivity

Format of Function-Key Lines

The following terminal commands are available for defining the format of function-key lines:

%YN

The function-key lines are displayed in tabular Software AG format:

```
Command ===>
Enter-PF1---PF2---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF7---PF8---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
Help Exit Canc
```

%YS

The function-key lines display the keys sequentially and only show those keys to which names have been assigned (PF1=*value*,PF2=*value*,etc.):

```
Command ===>
PF1=Help,PF3=Exit,PF12=Canc
```

%YP

The function-key lines are displayed in PC-like format, that is, sequentially and only showing those keys to which names have been assigned (F1=value,F2=value,etc.):

```
Command ===>
F1=Help,F3=Exit,F12=Canc
```

Other Display Options

Various other command options are available for function-key lines, such as:

- single- and double-line display,
- intensified display,
- reverse video display,
- color display.

For details on these options, see %Y - Control of PF-Key Lines in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Positioning of Function-Key Lines

%YB

The function-key lines are displayed at the bottom of the screen:

```
16:50:53
                           ***** NATURAL ****
                                                                  2002-12-18
User SAG
                               - Main Menu -
                                                          Library XYZ
                  Function
                _ Development Functions
                _ Development Environment Settings
                _ Maintenance and Transfer Utilities
                _ Debugging and Monitoring Utilities
                _ Example Libraries
                _ Other Products
                _ Help
                _ Exit Natural Session
Command ===>
Enter-PF1---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
     Help
                 Exit
                                                                     Canc
```

%YT

The function-key lines are displayed at the top of the screen:

```
Enter-PF1---PF2---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF7---PF8---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
                 Exit
     Help
                                                                       Canc
                            ***** NATURAL ****
16:50:53
                                                                     2002-12-18
User SAG
                                - Main Menu -
                                                            Library XYZ
                   Function
                _ Development Functions
                 _ Development Environment Settings
                 _ Maintenance and Transfer Utilities
                 _ Debugging and Monitoring Utilities
                 _ Example Libraries
                 _ Other Products
                 _ Help
                 _ Exit Natural Session
Command ===>
```

%Ynn

The function-key lines are displayed on line *nn* of the screen. In the example below the function-key line has been set to line 10:

```
16:50:53
                              ***** NATURAL ****
                                                                           2002-12-18
User SAG
                                   - Main Menu -
                                                                  Library XYZ
                    Function
                  _ Development Functions
                  _ Development Environment Settings
_ Maintenance and Transfer Utilities
Enter-PF1---PF2---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF7---PF8---PF10--PF11--PF12---
      Help
                   Exit
                                                                              Canc
                  - Debugging and Monitoring Utilities
                  _ Example Libraries
                  _ Other Products
                  _ Help
                  _ Exit Natural Session
Command ===>
```

Cursor-Sensitivity

%YC

This command makes the function-key lines cursor-sensitive. This means that they act like an action bar on a PC screen: you just move the cursor to the desired function-key number or name and press ENTER, and Natural reacts as if the corresponding function key had been pressed.

To switch cursor-sensitivity off, you enter % YC again (toggle switch).

By using %YC in conjunction with tabular display format (%YN) and having only the function-key names displayed (%YH), you can equip your applications with very comfortable action bar processing: the user merely has to select a function name with the cursor and press ENTER, and the function is executed.

Control of the Message Line - Terminal Command %M

Various options of the terminal command %M are available for defining how and where the Natural message line is to be displayed.

Below is information on:

- Positioning the Message Line
- Message Line Protection
- Message Line Color

Positioning the Message Line

%MB

The message line is displayed at the bottom of the screen:

```
***** NATURAL ****
16:50:53
                                                                     2002-12-18
User SAG
                                - Main Menu -
                                                             Library XYZ
                   Function
                 _ Development Functions
                 _ Development Environment Settings
                 _ Maintenance and Transfer Utilities
                 _ Debugging and Monitoring Utilities
                 _ Example Libraries
                 _ Other Products
                 _ Help
                 _ Exit Natural Session
Command ===>
Enter-PF1---PF2---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF8---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
     Help
                 Exit
Please enter a function.
```

%MT

The message line is displayed at the top of the screen:

```
Please enter a function.
16:50:53
                            ***** NATURAL ****
                                                                    2002-12-18
User SAG
                               - Main Menu -
                                                            Library XYZ
                  Function
                _ Development Functions
                 _ Development Environment Settings
                 _ Maintenance and Transfer Utilities
                 _ Debugging and Monitoring Utilities
                 _ Example Libraries
                 _ Other Products
                 _ Help
                 _ Exit Natural Session
Command ===>
Enter-PF1---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF7---PF8---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
```

Other options for the positioning of the message line are described in M - Control of Message Line in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Message Line Protection

%MP

The message line is switched from unprotected to protected mode or vice versa. In unprotected mode, the message line can also be used for terminal input.

Message Line Color

%M=color-code

The message line is displayed in the specified color (for an explanation of color codes, see the session parameter CD as described in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation).

Assigning Colors to Fields - Terminal Command %=

You can use the terminal command %= to assign colors to field attributes for programs that were originally not written for color support. The command causes all fields/text defined with the specified attributes to be displayed in the specified color.

If predefined color assignments are not suitable for your terminal type, you can use this command to override the original assignments with new ones.

You can also use the %= terminal command within Natural editors, for example to define color assignments dynamically during map creation.

Codes	Description
blank	Clear color translate table.
F	Newly defined colors are to override colors assigned by the program.
N	Color attributes assigned by program are not to be modified.
О	Output field.
M	Modifiable field (output and input).
Т	Text constant.
В	Blinking
С	Italic
D	Default
I	Intensified
U	Underlined
V	Reverse video
BG	Background
BL	Blue
GR	Green
NE	Neutral
PI	Pink
RE	Red
TU	Turquoise
YE	Yellow

Example:

%=TI=RE,OB=YE

This example assigns the color red to all intensified text fields and yellow to all blinking output fields.

Outlining - Terminal Command %D=B

Outlining (boxing) is the capability to generate a line around certain fields when they are displayed on the terminal screen. Drawing such "boxes" around fields is another method of showing the user the lengths of fields and their positions on the screen.

Outlining is only available on certain types of terminals, usually those which also support the display of double-byte character sets.

The terminal command D=B is used to control outlining. For details on this command, see the relevant section in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Statistics Line/Infoline - Terminal Command %X

This terminal command controls the display of the Natural statistics line/infoline. The line can be used either as a statistics line or as an infoline, but not both at the same time.

Below is information on:

- Statistics Line
- Infoline

Statistics Line

To turn the statistics line on/off, enter the terminal command %X (this is a toggle function). If you set the statistics line on, you can see statistical information, such as:

- the number of bytes transmitted to the screen during the previous screen operation,
- the logical line size of the current page,
- the physical line size of the window.

For full details regarding the statistics line, see the terminal command %X as described in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

The example below shows the statistics line displayed at the bottom of the screen:

```
> + Program
                                                                     POS
                                                                                Lib SAG
        . . . . + . . . . 1 . . . . + . . . . 2 . . . . + . . . . 3 . . . . + . . . . 4 . . . . + . . . . 5 . . . . + . . . . 6 . . . . + . . . . 7 . .
All
  0010 SET CONTROL 'XT'
  0020 SET CONTROL 'XI+'
  0030 DEFINE PRINTER (2) OUTPUT 'INFOLINE'
  0040 WRITE (2) 'EXECUTING' *PROGRAM 'BY' *INIT-USER
  0050 WRITE 'TEST OUTPUT'
  0070 END
  0080
  0090
  0100
  0110
  0120
  0130
  0140
  0150
  0160
  0170
  0180
  0190
  0200
IO=264,AI =292,L=0 C= ,LS=80,P =23,PLS=80,PCS=24,FLD=82,CLS=1,ADA=0
```

Infoline

You can also use the statistics line as an *infoline* where status information can be displayed, for example, for debugging purposes, or you can use it as a separator line (as defined by SAA standards).

To define the statistics line as an infoline, you use the terminal command %XI+.

Once you have activated the infoline with the above command, you can define the infoline as the output destination for data with the DEFINE PRINTER statement as demonstrated in the example below:

Windows <Untitled>

Example:

```
SET CONTROL 'XT'
SET CONTROL 'XI+'
DEFINE PRINTER (2) OUTPUT 'INFOLINE'
WRITE (2) 'EXECUTING' *PROGRAM 'BY' *INIT-USER
WRITE 'TEST OUTPUT'
END
```

When the above program is run, the status information is displayed in the infoline at the top of the output display:

```
EXECUTING POS BY SAG

Page 1 2001-01-22 10:56:06

TEST OUTPUT
```

For further details on the statistics line/infoline, see the terminal command %X as described in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Windows

Below is information on:

- What is a Window?
- DEFINE WINDOW Statement
- INPUT WINDOW Statement

What is a Window?

A window is that segment of a logical page, built by a program, which is displayed on the terminal screen.

A *logical page* is the output area for Natural; in other words the logical page contains the current report/map produced by the Natural program for display. This logical page may be larger than the physical screen.

There is always a window present, although you may not be aware of its existence. Unless specified differently (by a DEFINE WINDOW statement), the size of the window is identical to the physical size of your terminal screen.

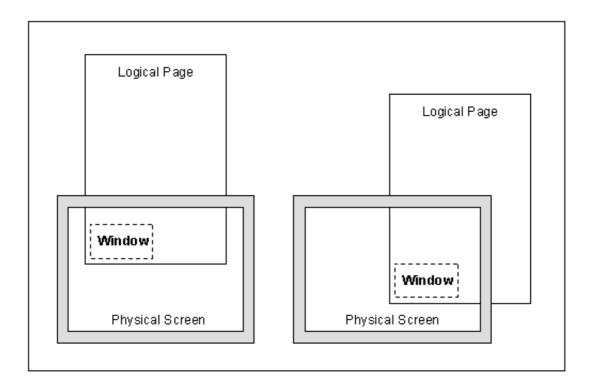
You can manipulate a window in two ways:

- You can control the size and position of the window on the *physical screen*.
- You can control the position of the window on the *logical page*.

Positioning on the Physical Screen

The figure below illustrates the positioning of a window on the physical screen. Note that the same section of the logical page is displayed in both cases, only the position of the window on the screen has changed.

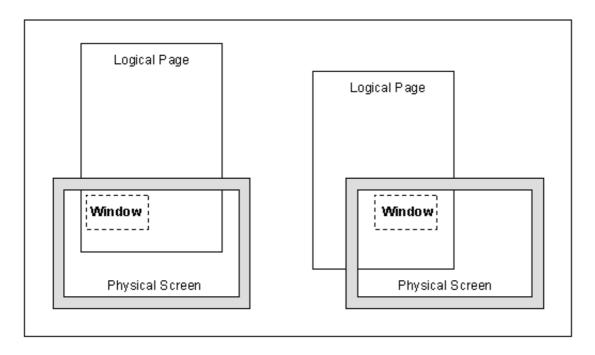
<Untitled> What is a Window?



Positioning on the Logical Page

The figure below illustrates the positioning of a window on the logical page.

When you change the position of the window on the **logical page**, the size and position of the window on the **physical screen** will remain unchanged. In other words, the window is not moved over the page, but the page is moved "underneath" the window.



DEFINE WINDOW Statement

You use the DEFINE WINDOW statement to specify the size, position and attributes of a window on the **physical screen**.

A DEFINE WINDOW statement does not activate a window; this is done with a SET WINDOW statement or with the WINDOW clause of an INPUT statement.

Various options are available with the DEFINE WINDOW statement. These are described below in the context of the example.

The following program defines a window on the physical screen.

```
Example:
  DEFINE DATA LOCAL
  1 COMMAND (A10)
  END-DEFINE
 DEFINE WINDOW TEST
    SIZE 5*25
    BASE 5/40
    TITLE 'Sample Window'
    CONTROL WINDOW
    FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
  INPUT WINDOW='TEST'
    WITH TEXT 'message line'
    COMMAND (AD=I) /
    'dataline 1' /
    'dataline 2' /
    'dataline 3' 'long data line'
  IF COMMAND = 'TEST2'
    FETCH 'TWIND2'
  ELSE
   REINPUT 'invalid command'
  END-IF
  END
```

The **window-name** identifies the window. The name may be up to 32 characters long. For a window name, the same naming conventions apply as for user-defined variables. Here the name is TEST.

The window size is set with the SIZE option. Here the window is 5 lines high and 25 columns (positions) wide.

The position of the window is set by the BASE option. Here the top left-hand corner of the window is positioned on line 5, column 40.

With the TITLE option, you can define a title that is to be displayed in the window frame (of course, only if you have defined a frame for the window).

With the FRAMED option, you define that the window is to be framed.

This frame is then cursor-sensitive. Where applicable, you can page forward, backward, left or right within the window by simply placing the cursor over the appropriate symbol (<, -, +, or >; see POSITION clause) and then pressing ENTER. In other words, you are moving the *logical page* underneath the window on the physical screen. If no symbols are displayed, you can page backward and forward within the window by placing the cursor in the top frame line (for backward positioning) or bottom frame line (for forward positioning) and then pressing ENTER.

<Untitled> INPUT WINDOW Statement

With the POSITION clause of the FRAMED option, you define that information on the position of the window on the logical page is to be displayed in the frame of the window. This applies only if the logical page is larger than the window; if it is not, the POSITION clause will be ignored. The position information indicates in which directions the logical page extends above, below, to the left and to the right of the current window.

If the POSITION clause is omitted, POSITION SYMBOL TOP RIGHT applies by default.

POSITION SYMBOL causes the position information to be displayed in form of symbols: "More: < - + >". The information is displayed in the top and/or bottom frame line.

TOP/BOTTOM determines whether the position information is displayed in the top or bottom frame line.

LEFT/RIGHT determines whether the position information is displayed in the left or right part of the frame line.

You can define which characters are to be used for the frame with the terminal command %F=chv.

c	The first character will be used for the four <i>corners</i> of the window frame.
h	The second character will be used for the <i>horizontal</i> frame lines.
v	The third character will be used for the <i>vertical</i> frame lines.

Example:

%F = +-!

The above command makes the window frame look like this:



INPUT WINDOW Statement

The INPUT WINDOW statement activates the window defined in the DEFINE WINDOW statement. In the example, the window TEST is activated. Note that if you wish to output data in a window (for example, with a WRITE statement), you use the SET WINDOW statement.

When the above program is run, the window is displayed with one input field COMMAND:

INPUT WINDOW Statement <Untitled>

```
> + Program TWIND Lib SAG
     ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+....6....+....7..
Bot
 0030 END-DEFINE
                                   +----Sample Window----+
 0040 *
 0050 DEFINE WINDOW TEST
                                   ! message line !
       SIZE 5*25
 0.060
                                   ! COMMAND
      BASE 5/40
                                   ! dataline 1
 0070
      TITLE 'Sample Window' +More: + >-----+
 0800
      CONTROL WINDOW
 0090
 0100 FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
 0110 INPUT WINDOW='TEST'
 0120 WITH TEXT 'message line'
 0130 COMMAND (AD=I) /
 0140 'dataline 1' /
 0150 'dataline 2' /
 0160 'dataline 3' 'long data line'
 0170 IF COMMAND = 'TEST2'
 0180
      FETCH 'TWIND2'
 0190 ELSE
  0200
       REINPUT 'invalid command'
 0210 END-IF
 0220 END
      ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+.... S 22 L 3
```

In the bottom frame line, the position information "More +>" indicates that there is more information on the logical page than is displayed in the window.

To see the information that is further down on the logical page, you place the cursor in the bottom frame line on the plus (+) sign and press ENTER.

The window is now moved downwards. Note that the text "long data line" does not fit in the window and is consequently not fully visible.

```
> + Program TWIND Lib SAG
      ....+...1....+...2....+...3....+...4....+....5....+....6....+....7..
Bot
 0030 END-DEFINE
                                   +----Sample Window----+
 0040 *
 0050 DEFINE WINDOW TEST
                                   ! invalid command !
 0060 SIZE 5*25
                                  ! dataline 2
 0070 BASE 5/40
                                  ! dataline 3 long data !
 0080 TITLE 'Sample Window' +More: - >----+
 0090 CONTROL WINDOW
 0100 FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
 0110 INPUT WINDOW='TEST'
 0120 WITH TEXT 'message line'
       COMMAND (AD=I) /
 0130
 0140
        'dataline 1' /
        'dataline 2' /
 0150
 0160 'dataline 3' 'long data line'
 0170 IF COMMAND = 'TEST2'
 0180 FETCH 'TWIND2'
 0190 ELSE
      REINPUT 'invalid command'
 0210 END-IF
 0220 END
      ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+... S 22
                                                                  L 3
```

To see this hidden information to the right, you place the cursor in the bottom frame line on the ">" symbol and press ENTER. The window is now moved to the right on the logical page and displays the previously invisible word "line":

```
TWIND
                                                           Lib SAG
                                    > + Program
> r
Bot
       ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+....6....+....7..
  0030 END-DEFINE
  0040 *
                                    +----Sample Window----+
  0050 DEFINE WINDOW TEST
                                    ! invalid command
  0060 SIZE 5*25
                                   !
                                                         !
  0070 BASE 5/40
                                   ! line
                                                         1
  0080 TITLE 'Sample Window'
                                   +More: < - ----+
  0090 CONTROL WINDOW
  0100 FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
```

Message and Function-Key Lines

With the CONTROL clause, you determine whether the function-key lines, the message line and the statistics line are displayed in the window or on the full physical screen.

- CONTROL WINDOW displays the lines inside the window.
- CONTROL SCREEN displays the lines on the full physical screen outside the window.

If you omit the CONTROL clause, CONTROL WINDOW applies by default.

Multiple Windows

You can, of course, open multiple windows. However, only one Natural window is active at any one time, that is, the most recent window. Any previous windows may still be visible on the screen, but are no longer active and are ignored by Natural. You may enter input only in the most recent window. If there is not enough space to enter input, the window size must be adjusted first.

When TEST2 is entered in the COMMAND field, the second program TWIND2 is executed.

Program TWIND2:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 COMMAND (A10)
END-DEFINE
DEFINE WINDOW TEST2
 SIZE 5*30
 BASE 15/40
 TITLE 'ANOTHER WINDOW'
 CONTROL SCREEN
 FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
INPUT WINDOW='TEST2'
 WITH TEXT 'message line'
 COMMAND (AD=U) /
  'dataline 1' /
  'dataline 2' /
  'dataline 3' 'long data line'
IF COMMAND = 'TEST'
 FETCH 'TWIND'
ELSE
 REINPUT 'invalid command'
END-IF
END
```

A second window is opened. The other window is still visible, but it is inactive.

```
message line
                                          TWIND Lib SAG
                              > + Program
     ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+....6....+....7..
Bot
 0030 END-DEFINE
 0040 *
                            +----Sample Window----+
 0050 DEFINE WINDOW TEST
                           ! invalid command ! Inactive
                           ! COMMAND TEST2 ! Window
 0060 SIZE 5*25
                                             ! ◀
 0070 BASE 5/40
                            ! dataline 1
 0080 TITLE 'Sample Window' +More: + >----+
 0090 CONTROL WINDOW
 0100
     FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
 0110 INPUT WINDOW='TEST'
 0120 WITH TEXT 'message line'
 0130
      COMMAND (AD=I) /
 +----+ Currently
 0170 IF COMMAND = 'TEST2' ! dataline 2
 0180 FETCH 'TWIND2'
                            +More: + >----+
 0190 ELSE
 0200 REINPUT 'invalid command'
 0210 END-IF
 0220 END
     ....+....1....+....2....+....3....+....4....+....5....+.... S 22
```

Note that for the new window the message line is now displayed on the full physical screen (at the top) and not in the window. This was defined by the CONTROL SCREEN clause in the TWIND2 program.

For further details on the statements DEFINE WINDOW, INPUT WINDOW and SET WINDOW, see the corresponding descriptions in the Natural Statements documentation.

Standard/Dynamic Layout Maps

Standard Layout Maps

As described in the section Tutorial - Using the Map Editor, a *standard layout* can be defined in the map editor. This layout guarantees a uniform appearance for all maps that reference it throughout the application.

When a map that references a standard layout is initialized, the standard layout becomes a fixed part of the map. This means that if this standard layout is modified, all affected maps must be re-cataloged before the changes take effect.

Dynamic Layout Maps

In contrast to a standard layout, a *dynamic layout* does not become a fixed part of a map that references it, rather it is executed at runtime.

This means that if you define the layout map as "dynamic" on the Define Map Settings For Map screen in the map editor (see the example below), any modifications to the layout map are also carried out on all maps that reference it. The maps need not be re-cataloged.

08:46	5:18		Define Map Settings for MAP	2001-01-22
Delimiters			Format	Context
	Att CD	Del	Page Size 23	
Т	D	BLANK	Line Size 79	WRITE Statement _
T	I	?	Column Shift 0 (0/1)	INPUT Statement X
A	D	_	Layout STAN1	Help
A	I)	dynamic Y (Y/N)	as field default N (Y/N)
A	N	a	Zero Print N (Y/N)	
M	D	&	Case Default UC (UC/LC)	
M	I	:	Manual Skip N (Y/N)	Automatic Rule Rank 1
0	D	+	Decimal Char	Profile Name SYSPROF
0	I	(Standard Keys Y (Y/N)	
			Justification L (L/R)	Filler Characters
			Print Mode	
			Control Var	Optional, Partial Required, Partial Optional, Complete
Appl	y chang	es only	to new fields? N (Y/N)	_
Enter	-PF1 Help		3PF4PF5PF6PF7PF8-	PF9PF10PF11PF12 Let

For further details on layout maps, see Map Editor in the Natural Editors documentation.

Multilingual User Interfaces

Using Natural, you can create multilingual applications for international use.

Maps, helproutines, error messages, programs, subprograms and copycodes can be defined in up to 60 different languages (including languages with double-byte character sets).

Below is information on:

- Language Codes
- Defining the Language of a Natural Object
- Defining the User Language
- Referencing Multilingual Objects
- Programs
- Error Messages
- Edit Masks for Date and Time Fields

Language Codes

In Natural, each language has a **language code** (from 1 to 60). The table below is an extract from the full table of language codes.

Language Code	Language	Map Code in Object Names
1	English	1
2	German	2
3	French	3
4	Spanish	4
5	Italian	5
6	Dutch	6
7	Turkish	7
8	Danish	8
9	Norwegian	9
10	Albanian	A
11	Portuguese	В

The language code (left column) is the code that is contained in the system variable *LANGUAGE. This code is used by Natural internally. It is the code you use to define the user language (see Defining the User Language below). The code you use to identify the language of a Natural object is the *map code* in the right-hand column of the table.

Example:

The language code for Portuguese is "11".

The code you use when cataloging a Portuguese Natural object is "B".

For the full table of language codes, see the system variable *LANGUAGE as described in the Natural System Variables documentation.

Defining the Language of a Natural Object

To define the language of a Natural object (map, helproutine, program, subprogram or copycode), you add the corresponding map code to the object name. Apart from the map code, the name of the object must be identical for all languages.

In the example below, a map has been created in English and in German. To identify the languages of the maps, the map code that corresponds to the respective language has been included in the map name.

Example of Map Names for a Multilingual Application:

DEMO1 = English map (map code 1) DEMO2 = German map (map code 2)

Defining Languages with Alphabetical Map Codes

Map codes are in the range 1-9, A-Z or a-y. The alphabetical map codes require special handling.

Normally, it is not possible to catalog an object with a lower-case letter in the name - all characters are automatically converted into capitals.

This is however necessary, if for example you wish to define an object for Kanji (Japanese) which has the language code 59 and the map code "x".

To catalog such an object, you first set the correct language code (here 59) using the terminal command %L=nn, where nn is the language code.

You then catalog the object using the ampersand (&) character instead of the actual map code in the object name. So to have a Japanese version of the map DEMO, you stow the map under the name DEMO&.

If you now look at the list of Natural objects, you will see that the map is correctly listed as DEMOx.

Objects with language codes 1-9 and upper case A-Z can be cataloged directly without the use of the ampersand (&) notation.

In the example list below, you can see the three maps DEMO1, DEMO2 and DEMOx. To delete the map DEMOx, you use the same method as when creating it, that is, you set the correct language with the terminal command %L=59 and then confirm the deletion with the & notation (DEMO&).

user	SAG	ΤΤ	ST :	` ^					Librar	y SAG
Cmd	Name	Type		S/C	SM	Vers	Level	User-ID	Date	Time
	COM3	Program		S/C	S	2.2	0002	SAG	92-01-21	14:34:3
	CUR	Program	+		D	ELETE		+	92-01-22	09:37:0
	CURS	Map	!					!	92-01-22	09:37:4
	D	Program	!	Pleas	se con	nfirm	deletic	n!	92-01-21	14:13:1
	DARL	Program	!	with	name	DEMO		!	91-06-03	12:08:3
	DARL1	Local	!			DEMO8	·	!	91-06-03	12:03:5
	DAV	Program	+					+	92-01-29	09:07:5
de	DEMOx	Map		S/C	S	2.2	0002	SAG	92-02-25	08:41:0
	DEMO1	Map		S/C	S	2.2	0002	SAG	92-01-22	08:38:3
	DEMO2	Map		S/C	S	2.2	0002	SAG	92-01-22	08:07:3
	DOWNCOM	Program		S	S	2.2	0001	SAG	91-08-12	14:01:1
	DOWNCOMR	Program		S	S	2.2	0001	SAG	91-08-12	14:01:3
	DOWNCOM2	Program		S	S	2.2	0001	SAG	91-08-15	13:02:2
	DOWNDIR	Program		S	S	2.2	0001	SAG	91-08-16	08:03:5
From	·	(New star	t va	alue)					0	
Comm	and ===>									

Defining the User Language

You define the language to be used per user - as defined in the system variable *LANGUAGE - with the profile parameter ULANG (which is described in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation) or with the terminal command %L=nn (where nn is the language code).

Referencing Multilingual Objects

To reference multilingual objects in a program, you use the ampersand (&) character in the name of the object.

The program below uses the maps DEMO1 and DEMO2. The ampersand (&) character at the end of the map name stands for the map code and indicates that the map with the current language as defined in the *LANGUAGE system variable is to be used.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 PERSONNEL VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME (A20)

2 PERSONNEL-ID (A8)

1 CAR VIEW OF VEHICLES

2 REG-NUM (A15)

1 #CODE (N1)

END-DEFINE

*

INPUT USING MAP 'DEMO&' /* <--- INVOKE MAP WITH CURRENT LANGUAGE CODE
```

When this program is run, the English map (DEMO1) is displayed. This is because the current value of *LANGUAGE is "1" = English.

```
MAP DEMO1

SAMPLE MAP

Please select a function!

1.) Employee information

2.) Vehicle information

Enter code here: _
```

In the example below, the language code has been switched to "2" = German with the terminal command %L=2.

When the program is now run, the German map (DEMO2) is displayed.

```
BEISPIEL-MAP

Bitte wählen Sie eine Funktion!

1.) Mitarbeiterdaten

2.) Fahrzeugdaten

Code hier eingeben: _
```

Programs

For some applications it may be useful to define multilingual programs. For example, a standard invoicing program, might use different subprograms to handle various tax aspects, depending on the country where the invoice is to be written.

Multilingual programs are defined with the same technique as described above for maps.

Error Messages

Using the Natural utility SYSERR, you can translate Natural error messages into up to 60 languages, and also define your own error messages.

Which message language a user sees, depends on the *LANGUAGE system variable.

For further information on error messages, see the Natural SYSERR Utility documentation.

Edit Masks for Date and Time Fields

The language used for date and time fields defined with edit masks also depends on the system variable *LANGUAGE.

For details on edit masks, see the session parameter EM as described in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation.

Skill-Sensitive User Interfaces

Users with varying levels of skill may wish to have different maps (of varying detail) while using the same application.

If your application is not for international use by users speaking different languages, you can use the techniques for multilingual maps to define maps of varying detail.

For example, you could define language code 1 as corresponding to the skill of the beginner, and language code 2 as corresponding to the skill of the advanced user. This simple but effective technique is illustrated below.

The following map (PERS1) includes instructions for the end user on how to select a function from the menu. The information is very detailed. The name of the map contains the map code 1:

MAP PERS1

SAMPLE MAP

Please select a function

1.) Employee information _

2.) Vehicle information _

Enter code: _

To select a function, do one of the following:

- place the cursor on the input field next to desired function and press ENTER
- mark the input field next to desired function with an X and press ENTER
- enter the desired function code (1 or 2) in the 'Enter code' field and press ENTER

The same map, but without the detailed instructions is saved under the same name, but with map code 2.

SAMPLE MAP

Please select a function

1.) Employee information _

2.) Vehicle information _

Enter code: _

In the example above, the map with the detailed instructions is output, if the ULANG profile parameter has the value 1, the map without the instructions if the value is 2.

Further details on ULANG are described in Profile Parameters in the Natural Parameter Reference documentation.

Dialog Design Dialog Design

Dialog Design

This document tells you how you can design user interfaces that make user interaction with the application simple and flexible:

- Field-Sensitive Processing
 *CURS-FIELD and POS(field-name)
- Simplifying Programming System Function POS
- Line-Sensitive Processing System Variable *CURS-LINE
- Column-Sensitive Processing System Variable *CURS-COL
- Processing Based on Function Keys System Variable *PF-KEY
- Processing Based on Function-Key Names System Variable *PF-NAME
- Processing Data Outside an Active Window System Variable *COM
- Copying Data from a Screen Terminal Commands %CS and %CC
- Statements REINPUT/REINPUT FULL
- Object-Oriented Processing Natural Command Processor

Field-Sensitive Processing

*CURS-FIELD and POS(field-name)

Using the system variable *CURS-FIELD together with the system function POS(*field-name*), you can define processing based on the field where the cursor is positioned at the time the user presses ENTER.

*CURS-FIELD contains the internal identification of the field where the cursor is currently positioned; it cannot be used by itself, but only in conjunction with POS(*field-name*).

You can use *CURS-FIELD and POS(*field-name*), for example, to enable a user to select a function simply by placing the cursor on a specific field and pressing ENTER.

The example below illustrates such an application:

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #EMP (A1)

1 #CAR (A1)

1 #CODE (N1)

END-DEFINE

*

INPUT USING MAP 'CURS'

*

DECIDE FOR FIRST CONDITION

WHEN *CURS-FIELD = POS(#EMP) OR #EMP = 'X' OR #CODE = 1

FETCH 'LISTEMP'

WHEN *CURS-FIELD = POS(#CAR) OR #CAR = 'X' OR #CODE = 2
```

```
FETCH 'LISTCAR'
WHEN NONE
REINPUT 'PLEASE MAKE A VALID SELECTION'
END-DECIDE

END
```

```
SAMPLE MAP

Please select a function

1.) Employee information _
2.) Vehicle information _
Cursor positioned on field

Enter code: _

To select a function, do one of the following:

- place the cursor on the input field next to desired function and press ENTER - mark the input field next to desired function with an X and press ENTER - enter the desired function code (1 or 2) in the 'Enter code' field and press ENTER
```

If the user places the cursor on the input field (#EMP) next to Employee information, and presses ENTER, the program LISTEMP displays a list of employee names:

```
2001-01-22 09:39:32
          1
Page
        NAME
ABELLAN
ACHIESON
ADAM
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
AECKERLE
AFANASSIEV
AFANASSIEV
AHT.
AKROYD
```

Simplifying Programming

System Function POS

The Natural system function POS(*field-name*) contains the internal identification of the field whose name is specified with the system function.

POS(*field-name*) may be used to identify a specific field, regardless of its position in a map. This means that the sequence and number of fields in a map may be changed, but POS(*field-name*) will still uniquely identify the same field. With this, for example, you need only a single REINPUT statement to make the field to be MARKed dependent on the program logic.

Note:

The values of *CURS-FIELD and POS(*field-name*) serve for internal identification of the fields only. They cannot be used for arithmetical operations.

Example:

```
DECIDE ON FIRST VALUE OF ...

VALUE ...

COMPUTE #FIELDX = POS(FIELD1)

VALUE ...

COMPUTE #FIELDX = POS(FIELD2)

...

END-DECIDE

...

REINPUT ... MARK #FIELDX

...
```

Full details on *CURS-FIELD and POS(*field-name*) are described in the Natural System Variables and System Functions documention.

Line-Sensitive Processing

System Variable *CURS-LINE

Using the system variable *CURS-LINE, you can make processing dependent on the line where the cursor is positioned at the time the user presses ENTER.

Using this variable, you can make user-friendly menus. With the appropriate programming, the user merely has to place the cursor on the line of the desired menu option and press ENTER to execute the option.

The cursor position is defined within the current active window, regardless of its physical placement on the screen.

Note:

The message line, function-key lines and statistics line/infoline are not counted as data lines on the screen.

The example below demonstrates line-sensitive processing using the *CURS-LINE system variable. When the user presses ENTER on the map, the program checks if the cursor is positioned on line 8 of the screen which contains the option "Employee information". If this is the case, the program that lists the names of employees LISTEMP is executed.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #EMP (A1)

1 #CAR (A1)

1 #CODE (N1)

END-DEFINE

*

INPUT USING MAP 'CURS'

*

DECIDE FOR FIRST CONDITION

WHEN *CURS-LINE = 8
```

```
FETCH 'LISTEMP'
WHEN NONE
REINPUT 'PLACE CURSOR ON LINE OF OPTION YOU WISH TO SELECT'
END-DECIDE
END
```

Company Information

Please select a function

[] 1.) Employee information

2.) Vehicle information

Place the cursor on the line of the option you wish to select and press ${\tt ENTER}$

The user places the cursor indicated by [] on the line of the desired option and presses ENTER and the corresponding program is executed.

Column-Sensitive Processing

System Variable *CURS-COL

The system variable *CURS-COL can be used in a similar way to *CURS-LINE described above. With *CURS-COL you can make processing dependent on the column where the cursor is positioned on the screen.

Processing Based on Function Keys

System Variable *PF-KEY

Frequently you may wish to make processing dependent on the function key a user presses.

This is achieved with the statement SET KEY, the system variable *PF-KEY and a modification of the default map settings (Standard Keys = "Y").

The SET KEY statement assigns functions to function keys during program execution. The system variable *PF-KEY contains the identification of the last function key the user pressed.

The example below illustrates the use of SET KEY in combination with *PF-KEY.

Example:

```
...
SET KEY PF1

*
NPUT USING MAP 'DEMO&'
IF *PF-KEY = 'PF1'
WRITE 'Help is currently not active'
END-IF
```

The SET KEY statement activates PF1 as a function key.

The IF statement defines what action is to be taken when the user presses PF1. The system variable *PF-KEY is checked for its current content; if it contains PF1, the corresponding action is taken.

Further details regarding the statement SET KEY and the system variable *PF-KEY are described in the Natural Statements and the Natural System Variables documentation respectively.

Processing Based on Function-Key Names

System Variable *PF-NAME

When defining processing based on function keys, further comfort can be added by using the system variable *PF-NAME. With this variable you can make processing dependent on the name of a function, not on a specific key.

The variable *PF-NAME contains the name of the last function key the user pressed (that is, the name as assigned to the key with the NAMED clause of the SET KEY statement).

For example, if you wish to allow users to invoke help by pressing either PF3 or PF12, you assign the same name (in the example below: INFO) to both keys. When the user presses either one of the keys, the processing defined in the IF statement is performed.

Example:

```
SET KEY PF3 NAMED 'INFO'

PF12 NAMED 'INFO'

INPUT USING MAP 'DEMO&'

IF *PF-NAME = 'INFO'

WRITE 'Help is currently not active'

END-IF
```

The function names defined with NAMED appear in the function-key lines:

```
Enter-PF1---PF2---PF3---PF4---PF5---PF6---PF7---PF8---PF9---PF10--PF11--PF12---
INFO INFO
```

Processing Data Outside an Active Window

Below is information on:

- System Variable *COM
- Example Usage of *COM
- Positioning the Cursor to *COM %T* Terminal Command

System Variable *COM Dialog Design

System Variable *COM

As stated above, only **one** window is active at any one time. This normally means that input is only possible within that particular window.

Using the *COM system variable, which can be regarded as a communication area, it is possible to enter data outside the current window.

The prerequisite is that a map contains *COM as a modifiable field. This field is then available for the user to enter data when a window is currently on the screen. Further processing can then be made dependent on the content of *COM.

This allows you to implement user interfaces as already used, for example, by Con-nect, Software AG's office system, where a user can always enter data in the command line, even when a window with its own input fields is active.

Note that *COM is only cleared when the Natural session is ended.

Example Usage of *COM

In the example below, the program ADD performs a simple addition using the input data from a map. In this map, *COM has been defined as a modifiable field (at the bottom of the map) with the length specified in the AL field of the Extended Field Editing . The result of the calculation is displayed in a window. Although this window offers no possibility for input, the user can still use the *COM field in the map outside the window.

Program ADD:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL
1 #VALUE1 (N4)
1 #VALUE2 (N4)
1 #SUM3 (N8)
END-DEFINE
DEFINE WINDOW EMP
 SIZE 8*17
 BASE 10/2
 TITLE 'Total of Add'
  CONTROL SCREEN
  FRAMED POSITION SYMBOL BOT LEFT
INPUT USING MAP 'WINDOW'
COMPUTE #SUM3 = #VALUE1 + #VALUE2
SET WINDOW 'EMP'
INPUT (AD=O) / 'Value 1 +' /
               'Value 2 =' //
               ' ' #SUM3
 IF *COM = 'M'
  FETCH 'MULTIPLY' #VALUE1 #VALUE2
 END-IF
 END
```

In this example, by entering the value "M", the user initiates a multiplication function; the two values from the input map are multiplied and the result is displayed in a second window:

Positioning the Cursor to *COM - the %T* Terminal Command

Normally, when a window is active and the window contains no input fields (AD=M or AD=A), the cursor is placed in the top left corner of the window.

With the terminal command %T*, you can position the cursor to a *COM system variable outside the window when the active window contains no input fields.

By using $\mbox{\%}\mbox{\,T*}$ again, you can switch back to standard cursor placement.

Example:

Copying Data from a Screen

Below is information on:

- Terminal Commands %CS and %CC
- Selecting a Line from Report Output for Further Processing

Terminal Commands %CS and %CC

With these terminal commands, you can copy parts of a screen into the Natural stack (%CS) or into the system variable *COM (%CC). The protected data from a specific screen line are copied field by field.

The full options of these terminal commands are described in the Natural Terminal Commands documentation.

Once copied to the stack or *COM, the data are available for further processing. Using these commands, you can make user-friendly interfaces as in the example below.

Selecting a Line from Report Output for Further Processing

In the following example, the program COM1 lists all employee names from Abellan to Alestia.

Program COM1:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 EMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME(A20)

2 MIDDLE-NAME (A20)

2 PERSONNEL-ID (A8)

END-DEFINE

*

READ EMP BY NAME STARTING FROM 'ABELLAN' THRU 'ALESTIA'

DISPLAY NAME

END-READ

FETCH 'COM2'

END
```

```
2001-01-22 08:21:22
Page
          1
        NAME
ABELLAN
ACHIESON
ADAM
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
ADKINSON
AECKERLE
AFANASSIEV
AFANASSIEV
AHL
AKROYD
ALEMAN
ALESTIA
MORE
```

Control is now passed to the program COM2.

Program COM2:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 EMP VIEW OF EMPLOYEES

2 NAME(A20)

2 MIDDLE-NAME (A20)

2 PERSONNEL-ID (A8)

1 SELECTNAME (A20)

END-DEFINE

*

SET KEY PF5 = '%CCC'

*

INPUT NO ERASE 'SELECT FIELD WITH CURSOR AND PRESS PF5'

* MOVE *COM TO SELECTNAME

FIND EMP WITH NAME = SELECTNAME

DISPLAY NAME PERSONNEL-ID

END-FIND

END
```

In this program, the terminal command %CCC is assigned to PF5. The terminal command copies all protected data from the line where the cursor is positioned to the system variable *COM. This information is then available for further processing. This further processing is defined in the program lines shown in **boldface**.

The user can now position the cursor on the name that interests him; when he/she now presses PF5, further employee information is supplied.

```
SELECT FIELD WITH CURSOR AND PRESS PF5
                                                           2001-01-22 08:20:22
         NAME
 ABELLAN
 ACHIESON
 ADAM Cursor positioned on name for which more information is required
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 ADKINSON
 AECKERLE
 AFANASSIEV
 AFANASSIEV
 AKROYD
 ALEMAN
 ALESTIA
```

In this case, the personnel ID of the selected employee is displayed:

Page	1		2001-01-22	08:20:30
	NAME	PERSONNEL ID		
ADAM		50005800		

Statements REINPUT/REINPUT FULL

If you wish to return to and re-execute an INPUT statement, you use the REINPUT statement. It is generally used to display a message indicating that the data input as a result of the previous INPUT statement were invalid.

If you specify the FULL option in a REINPUT statement, the corresponding INPUT statement will be re-executed fully:

- With an ordinary REINPUT statement (without FULL option), the contents of variables that were changed between the INPUT and REINPUT statement will not be displayed; that is, all variables on the screen will show then contents they had when the INPUT statement was originally executed.
- With a REINPUT FULL statement, all changes that have been made after the initial execution of the INPUT statement will be applied to the INPUT statement when it is re-executed; that is, all variables on the screen contain the values they had when the REINPUT statement was executed.
- If you wish to position the cursor to a specified field, you can use the MARK option, and to position to a particular position within a specified field, you use the MARK POSITION option.

The example below illustrates the use of REINPUT FULL with MARK POSITION.

Example:

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #A (A10)

1 #B (N4)

1 #C (N4)

END-DEFINE

*

INPUT (AD=M) #A #B #C

IF #A = ''

COMPUTE #B = #B + #C

RESET #C

REINPUT FULL 'Enter a value' MARK POSITION 5 IN *#A

END-IF

END
```

The user enters 3 in field #B and 3 in field #C and presses ENTER.

```
#A #B 3 #C 3
```

The program requires field #A to be non-blank. The REINPUT FULL statement with MARK POSITION 5 IN *#A returns the input screen; the now modified variable #B contains the value 6 (after the COMPUTE calculation has been performed). The cursor is positioned to the 5th position in field #A ready for new input.

```
Enter name of field

#A _ #B 6 #C 0

Cursor positioned to 5th position in field

Enter a value
```

This is the screen that would be returned by the same statement, without the FULL option. Note that the variables #B and #C have been reset to their status at the time of execution of the INPUT statement (each field contains the value 3).

```
#A _ #B 3 #C 3
```

Object-Oriented Processing

Natural Command Processor

The Natural Command Processor is used to define and control navigation within an application.

The Natural Command Processor consists of two parts: a **development part** and a **runtime part**.

- The **development part** is the utility SYSNCP. With this utility, you define commands and the actions to be performed in response to the execution of these commands. From your definitions, SYSNCP generates decision tables which determine what happens when a user enters a command.
- The **run-time part** is the statement PROCESS COMMAND. This statement is used to invoke the Command Processor within a Natural program. In the statement you specify the name of the SYSNCP table to be used to handle the data input by a user at that point.

For further information regarding the Natural Command Processor, see the Natural SYSNCP Utility documentation and the statement PROCESS COMMAND as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Keywords and Reserved Words

This document contains a list of all keywords and words that are reserved in the Natural programming language.



To avoid possible naming conflicts, you are strongly recommended not to use these keywords or reserved words or components thereof as names for your data or procedures.

The following topics are covered:

- Performing a Keyword Check
- Alphabetical List of Keywords and Reserved Words

Performing a Keyword Check

To check that your code is free of keywords, you can use one of the following check facilities:

- Profile parameter KC (available only on UNIX and Windows)
- KCHECK option of the CMPO profile parameter or NTCMPO parameter macro (available only on mainframe platforms)
- KCHECK option of the COMPOPT system command (available only on mainframe platforms)

By default, no keyword check is performed.

Alphabetical List of Keywords and Reserved Words

The following list is an overview of Natural keywords and reserved words and is for general information only. In case of doubt, use the keyword check function of the compiler.

 $[A\,|\,B\,|\,C\,|\,D\,|\,E\,|\,F\,|\,G\,|\,H\,|\,I\,|\,J\,|\,K\,|\,L\,|\,M\,|\,N\,|\,O\,|\,P\,|\,Q\,|\,R\,|\,S\,|\,T\,|\,U\,|\,V\,|\,W\,|\,X\,|\,Y\,|\,Z\,]$

Symbols and Special Characters

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*APPLIC-ID
*APPLIC-NAME
*AVER
*COM

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*COUNT
*COUNTER
*CPU-TIME
*CURRENT-UNIT
*CURS-COL
*CURS-FIELD
*CURS-LINE
*CURSOR
*DATA
*DAT4D
*DAT4E
*DAT4I
*DAT4J
*DAT4U
*DATD
*DATE
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*DATI
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*DATN
*DATU
*DATX
*DEVICE
*DIALOG-ID
*ERROR
*ERROR-LINE
*ERROR-NR
*ERROR-TA
*ETID
*EVENT
*GROUP
*HARDCOPY
*HARDWARE
*HOSTNAME
*IN

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*INIT-PROGRAM
*INIT-USER
*IR
*ISN
*LANGUAGE
*LBOUND
*LEADING
*LENGTH
*LEVEL
*LIBRARY-ID
*LINE-COUNT
*LINESIZE
*LOG-LS
*LOG-PS
*MACHINE-CLASS
*MAX
*MAXVAL
*MIN
*MINVAL
*NATVERS
*NAVER
*NET-USER
*NCOUNT
*NMIN
*NUMBER
*OCC
*OCCURRENCE
*OI
*OLD
*OPSYS
*OS
*OSVERS
*OUT
*OUTIN
*PAGE-NUMBER

*PAGESIZE
*PARM-USER
*PARSE-COL
*PARSE-LEVEL
*PARSE-NAMESPACE-URI
*PARSE-ROW
*PARSE-TYPE
*PATCH-LEVEL
*PF-KEY
*PF-NAME
*PID
*PROGRAM
*ROWCOUNT
*SCREEN-IO
*SERVER-TYPE
*STARTUP
*STEPLIB
*SUBROUTINE
*SUM
*TCV
*THIS-OBJECT
*TIMD
*TIME
*TIMESTMP
*TIMN
*TIMX
*TPSYS
*TOTAL
*TRAILING
*TRANSLATE
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*TYPE
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LOGON
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LOWER
LOWER CASE
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- M -

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MAIL
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MARK
MASK
MAX
MC
MCG
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MGID
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PREVIOUS
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PRIORITY
PRIVATE
PROCESS

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PROCESSING
PROFILE
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PROGRAMS
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PROTOTYPE
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QUARTER

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Natural X

This document covers the following topics:

- Introduction to NaturalX
- Developing NaturalX Applications
- Distributing NaturalX Applications (Windows platforms only)

Introduction to NaturalX Introduction to NaturalX

Introduction to NaturalX

This section covers the following topics:

- Why NaturalX?
- Programming Techniques

Why NaturalX?

Software applications that are based on component architecture offer many advantages over traditional designs. These include the following:

- Faster development. Programmers can build applications faster by assembling software from prebuilt components.
- Reduced development costs. Having a common set of interfaces for programs means less work integrating the components into complete solutions.
- Improved flexibility. It is easier to customize software for different departments within a company by just changing some of the components that constitute the application.
- Reduced maintenance costs. In the case of an upgrade, it is often sufficient to change some of the components instead of having to modify the entire application.
- Easier distribution. Components encapsulate data structures and functionality in distributable units.

Using NaturalX you can create component-based applications.

On Windows platforms you can use NaturalX in conjunction with DCOM. This enables you to:

- allow your components to be accessed by other components,
- execute these components on local and/or remote servers,
- access components written in a variety of programming languages across process and machine boundaries from within Natural programs,
- provide your existing Natural applications with (quasi) standardized interfaces.

The following scenario illustrates how a company could exploit these advantages. A company introduces a new sales management system that is based on an application design using components. There are numerous data entry components in the application, one for each sales point. But all of these sales point use a common tax calculation component that runs on a server. If the tax legislation is changed, then only the tax component has to be updated instead of changing the data entry components at each site. In addition, the life of the programmers is made easier because they do not have to worry about network programming and the integration of components that are written in different languages.

On Mainframe and UNIX platforms you can also use NaturalX to apply a component-based programming style. However, on these platforms the components cannot be distributed and can only run in a local Natural session.

Programming Techniques

This section covers the following topics:

- Object-Based Programming
- Defining Classes
- Defining Interfaces
- Interface Inheritance

Object-Based Programming

NaturalX follows an object-based programming approach. Characteristic for this approach is the encapsulation of data structures with the corresponding functionality into classes. Encapsulation is a good basis for easy distribution. Because there are (quasi) standards for the interoperation of software components on the basis of object models, an object-based approach is also a good basis for making software components interoperable across program, machine and programming language boundaries.

Defining Classes

In an object-based application, each function is considered to be a service that is provided by an object. Each object belongs to a class. Clients use the services either to perform a business task or to build even more complex services and to provide these to other clients. Hence the basic step in creating an application with NaturalX is to define the classes that form the application. In many cases, the classes simply correspond to the real things that the application in question deals with, for example, bank accounts, aircraft, shipments etc. There is a wide range of good literature about object-oriented design, and a number of well-proven methods can be used to identify the classes in a given business.

The process of defining a class can be broadly broken down into the following steps:

- Create a Natural module of type class.
- Specify the name of the class using the DEFINE CLASS statement. This name will be used by the clients to create objects of that class.
- Use the OBJECT clause of the DEFINE DATA statement to define how an object of the class will look internally. Create a local data area that describes the layout of the object with the data area editor, and assign this data area in the OBJECT clause.

These steps are described in more detail in the section Developing Object-Based Natural Applications.

Defining Interfaces

In order to be useful to clients, a class must provide services, which it does through interfaces. An interface is a collection of methods and properties. A method is a function that an object of the class can perform when requested by a client. A property is an attribute of an object that a client can retrieve or change. A client accesses the services by creating an object of the class and using the methods and properties of its interfaces.

The process of defining an interface can be broadly broken down into the following steps:

- Use the INTERFACE clause to specify an interface name.
- Define the properties of the interface with PROPERTY definitions.
- Define the methods of the interface with METHOD definitions.

These steps are described in more detail in the section Developing Object-Based Natural Applications.

Simple classes only have one interface, but a class may have more than one interface. This possibility can be used to group methods and properties into one interface that belong to the same functional aspect of the class and to define different interfaces to handle other functional aspects. For example, an *Employee* class could have an interface *Administration* that contains all of the methods and properties of the administrative aspects of an employee. This interface could contain the properties *Salary* and *Department* and the method *TransferToDepartment*. Another interface *Qualifications* could contain the qualification aspects of an employee.

Interface Inheritance

Defining several interfaces for a class is the first step towards using interface inheritance, which is a more advanced method of designing classes and interfaces. This makes it possible to reuse the same interface definition in different classes. Assume that there is a class *Manager*, which is to be treated in the same way as

Interface Inheritance Introduction to NaturalX

the class *Employee* with respect to qualification, but which is to be handled differently as far as administration is concerned. This can be achieved by having the *Qualification* interface in both classes. This has the advantage that a client that uses the *Qualification* interface on a given object does not have to check explicitly whether the object represents an *Employee* or a *Manager*. It can simply use the same methods and properties without having to know of what class the object is. The properties or methods can even be implemented in a different way in both classes provided they are presented through the same interface definition.

The process of using interface inheritance can be broadly broken down into the following steps:

- Use the INTERFACE statements to define one or more interfaces in a copycode instead of defining them directly in the class.
- The METHOD and PROPERTY definitions in the INTERFACE statement do not need to contain the IS clause. At this point, you just define the external appearance of the interface without assigning implementations to the methods and properties.
- Use the INTERFACE clause to include the copycode with its interface definition in each class that will implement the interface.
- Use the METHOD and PROPERTY statements to assign implementations to the methods and properties of the interface in each class that will implement the interface.

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Developing NaturalX Applications

This section tells you how to develop an application by defining and using classes.

It covers the following topics:

- Using the Class Builder
- Defining Classes
- Using Classes and Objects

Using the Class Builder

On Windows platforms, Natural provides the Class Builder as the tool to develop Natural classes. The Class Builder shows a Natural class in a structured hierarchical order and allows the user to manage the class and its components efficiently. If you use the Class Builder, no knowledge or only a basic knowledge of the syntax elements described in the section Defining Classes is required.

Using Natural Single Point of Development (SPoD), you can use the Class Builder also to develop Classes on Mainframe and UNIX platforms. If you do not use SpoD, you develop classes on these platforms using the Natural program editor. In this case, you should know the syntax of class definition described in the section Defining Classes.

Defining Classes

When you define a class, you must create a Natural class module, within which you create a DEFINE CLASS statement. Using the DEFINE CLASS statement, you assign the class an externally usable name and define its interfaces, methods and properties. You can also assign an object data area to the class, which describes the layout of an instance of the class. On Windows platforms the DEFINE CLASS statement is also used to supply a global unique identifier to those classes that are to be registered as COM classes.

This section covers the following topics:

- Creating a Natural Class Module
- Specifying a Class
- Defining an Interface
- Assigning an Object Data Variable to a Property
- Assigning a Subprogram to a Method
- Implementing Methods

Creating a Natural Class Module



• Create a Natural object of type Class.

Specifying a Class

The DEFINE CLASS statement defines the name of the class, the interfaces the class supports and the structure of its objects. For classes that are to be registered as COM classes, it specifies also the Globally Unique ID of the class and its Activation Policy.

To specify a class

• Use the DEFINE CLASS statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Defining an Interface

Each interface of a class is specified with an INTERFACE statement inside the class definition. An INTERFACE statement specifies the name of the interface and a number of properties and methods. For classes that are to be registered as COM classes, it specifies also the Globally Unique ID of the interface.

A class can have one or several interfaces. For each interface, one INTERFACE statement is coded in the class definition. Each INTERFACE statement contains one or several PROPERTY and METHOD clauses. Usually the properties and methods contained in one interface are related from either a technical or a business point of view.

The PROPERTY clause defines the name of a property and assigns a variable from the object data area to the property. This variable is used to store the value of the property.

The METHOD clause defines the name of a method and assigns a subprogram to the method. This subprogram is used to implement the method.

To define an interface

• Use the INTERFACE statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Assigning an Object Data Variable to a Property

The PROPERTY statement is used only when several classes are to implement the same interface in different ways. In this case, the classes share the same interface definition and include it from a Natural Copycode. The PROPERTY statement is then used to assign a variable from the object data area to a property, outside the interface definition. Like the PROPERTY clause, the PROPERTY statement defines the name of a property and assigns a variable from the object data area to the property. This variable is used to store the value of the property.

To assign an object data variable to a property

• Use the PROPERTY statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Assigning a Subprogram to a Method

The METHOD statement is used only when several classes are to implement the same interface in different ways. In this case, the classes share the same interface definition and include it from a Natural Copycode. The METHOD statement is then used to assign a subprogram to the method, outside the interface definition. Like the METHOD clause, the METHOD statement defines the name of a method and assigns a subprogram to the method. This subprogram is used to implement the method.

To assign a subprogram to a method

• Use the METHOD statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Implementing Methods

A method is implemented as a Natural subprogram in the following general form:

DEFINE DATA statement

*

Implementation code of the method

END

For information on the DEFINE DATA statement see the Natural Statements Manual.

All clauses of the DEFINE DATA statement are optional.

It is recommended that you use data areas instead of inline data definitions to ensure data consistency.

If a PARAMETER clause is specified, the method can have parameters and/or a return value.

Parameters that are marked 'BY VALUE' in the parameter data area are input parameters of the method.

Parameters that are not marked 'BY VALUE' are passed by reference and are input/output parameters. This is the default.

The first parameter that is marked 'BY VALUE RESULT' is returned as the return value for the method. If more than one parameter is marked in this way, the others will be treated as input/output parameters.

Parameters that are marked 'OPTIONAL' are available with Version 4.1.2 and all subsequent releases. Optional parameters need not to be specified when the method is called. They can be left unspecified by using the nX notation in the SEND METHOD statement.

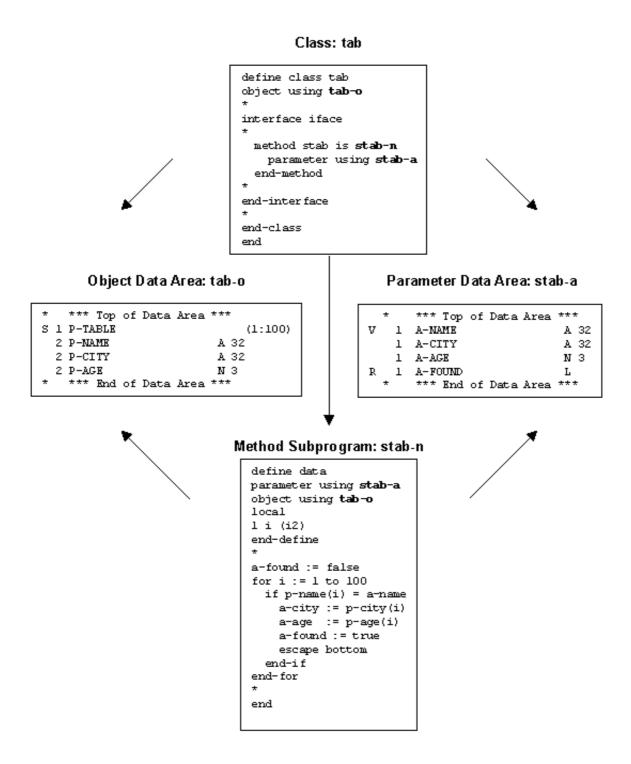
To make sure that the method subprogram accepts exactly the same parameters as specified in the corresponding METHOD statement in the class definition, use a parameter data area instead of inline data definitions. Use the same parameter data area as in the corresponding METHOD statement.

To give the method subprogram access to the object data structure, the OBJECT clause can be specified. To make sure that the method subprogram can access the object data correctly, use a local data area instead of inline data definitions. Use the same local data area as specified in the OBJECT clause of the DEFINE CLASS statement.

The GLOBAL, LOCAL and INDEPENDENT clauses can be used as in any other Natural program.

While technically possible, it is usually not meaningful to use a CONTEXT clause in a method subprogram.

The following example retrieves data about a given person from a table. The search key is passed as a 'BY VALUE' parameter. The resulting data is returned through 'BY REFERENCE' parameters ('BY REFERENCE' is the default definition). The return value of the method is defined by the specification 'BY VALUE RESULT'.



Using Classes and Objects

Objects created in a local Natural session can be accessed by other modules in the same Natural session. On Windows platforms, objects created in other processes or on remote machines can be accessed via DCOM. In both cases the rules for accessing and using classes and their objects are the same. The statement CREATE OBJECT is used to create an object (also known as an instance) of a given class. To reference objects in Natural programs, object handles have to be defined in the DEFINE DATA statement. Methods of an object are invoked with the statement SEND METHOD. Objects can have properties, which can be accessed using the normal assignment syntax.

Note:

In order to use a NaturalX class via DCOM, the class must first be registered.

This section covers the following topics:

- Defining Object Handles
- Creating an Instance of a Class
- Invoking a Particular Method of an Object
- Accessing Properties
- Sample Application

Defining Object Handles

To reference objects in Natural programs, object handles have to be defined as follows in the DEFINE DATA statement:

```
DEFINE DATA ...

level handle-name [(array-definition)] HANDLE OF OBJECT
...
END-DEFINE
```

Example

```
DEFINE DATA LOCAL

1 #MYOBJ1 HANDLE OF OBJECT

1 #MYOBJ2 (1:5) HANDLE OF OBJECT
END-DEFINE
```

Creating an Instance of a Class

- To create an instance of a class
 - Use the CREATE OBJECT statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Invoking a Particular Method of an Object

- To invoke a particular method of an object
 - Use the SEND METHOD statement as described in the Natural Statements documentation.

Accessing Properties

Properties can be accessed using the ASSIGN (or COMPUTE) statement as follows:

```
ASSIGN operand1.property-name = operand2
ASSIGN operand2 = operand1.property-name
```

Object Handle - operand1

Operand1 must be defined as an object handle and identifies the object whose property is to be accessed. The object must already exist.

operand2

As *operand2*, you specify an operand whose format must be data transfer-compatible to the format of the property. Please refer to the data transfer compatibility rules in the Natural Reference documentation for further information.

If the object is to be accessed via DCOM, you must also take into account the rules for data type conversion which are outlined in the section Data Type Conversions.

property-name

The name of a property of the object.

If the property name conforms to Natural identifier syntax, it can be specified as follows

```
create object #o1 of class "Employee"
#age := #o1.Age
```

If the property name does not conform to Natural identifier syntax, it must be enclosed in angle brackets:

```
create object #01 of class "Employee"
#salary := #01.<<%Salary>>
```

The property name can also be qualified with an interface name. This is necessary if the object has more than one interface containing a property with the same name. In this case, the qualified property name must be enclosed in angle brackets:

```
create object #o1 of class "Employee"
#age := #o1.<<PersonalData.Age>>
```

Example

```
define data
 local
 1 #i
            (i2)
            handle of object
 1 #0
             (5) handle of object
 1 #p
             (5) handle of object
 1 #q
 1 #salary
             (p7.2)
 1 #history
             (p7.2/1:10)
 end-define
 * Code omitted for brevity.
  * Set/Read the Salary property of the object #o.
 #o.Salary := #salary
 #salary := #o.Salary
  * Set/Read the Salary property of
 * the second object of the array #p.
 #p.Salary(2) := #salary
 #salary := #p.Salary(2)
 * Set/Read the SalaryHistory property of the object #o.
 #o.SalaryHistory := #history(1:10)
 #history(1:10) := #o.SalaryHistory
  * Set/Read the SalaryHistory property of
```

```
* the second object of the array #p.
#p.SalaryHistory(2) := #history(1:10)
#history(1:10) := #p.SalaryHistory(2)

*
    * Set the Salary property of each object in #p to the same value.
#p.Salary(*) := #salary
    * Set the SalaryHistory property of each object in #p
    * to the same value.
#p.SalaryHistory(*) := #history(1:10)
    *

* Set the Salary property of each object in #p to the value
    * of the Salary property of the corresponding object in #q.
#p.Salary(*) := #q.Salary(*)
    * Set the SalaryHistory property of each object in #p to the value
    * of the SalaryHistory property of the corresponding object in #q.
#p.SalaryHistory(*) := #q.SalaryHistory(*)
    * end
```

In order to use arrays of object handles and properties that have arrays as values correctly, it is important to know the following:

A property of an occurrence of an array of object handles is addressed with the following index notation:

```
#p.Salary(2) := #salary
```

A property that has an array as value is always accessed as a whole. Therefore no index notation is necessary with the property name:

```
#o.SalaryHistory := #history(1:10)
```

A property of an occurrence of an array of object handles which has an array as value is therefore addressed as follows:

```
#p.SalaryHistory(2) := #history(1:10)
```

Sample Application

An example application is provided in the libraries SYSEXCOM and SYSEXCOC. See the A-README members in these libraries for information about how to run the example.

Distributing NaturalX Applications

On Windows platforms, an application consisting of NaturalX classes can be distributed across several processes and machines using DCOM.

This section covers the following topics:

- General
- Globally Unique Identifiers (GUIDs)

General

Using NaturalX, you can make Natural classes and their services available to local and remote clients, thus creating distributed applications. Local clients are processes that run on the same machine as a given NaturalX server, and remote clients are processes that run on a different machine.

In order to distribute applications, a widely used distributed object technology is used - the Microsoft Distributed Component Object Model (DCOM). When you register a Natural class to DCOM, its interfaces are presented to clients in a quasi-standardized fashion as dynamic COM interfaces, which are also known as dispatch interfaces. These interfaces can be easily addressed by many programming languages including Visual Basic, Java, C++ and, of course, Natural.

There are several points that must be taken into consideration when organizing the distribution of a NaturalX application. Each of these points is discussed in more detail in this chapter.

- Determine whether each class should be internal, external or local (see the section Internal, External and Local Classes).
- Globally unique IDs (GUIDs) must be assigned to the internal and external classes and their interfaces in
 order to be able to address them uniquely in the network (see the section Globally Unique Idenitfiers
 (GUIDs).
- You can define the activation policy for each class in order to control the conditions under which DCOM activates it (see section Activation Policies).
- In order to organize classes to applications, you can define NaturalX servers and assign the classes to them (see the section NaturalX Servers).
- Classes must be registered to make them known to DCOM (see section Registration).
- You can configure an application in order to further control its behavior (see the sections Configuration Overview and DCOM Configuration on Windows 2000/XP).

Internal, External and Local Classes

It is important to distinguish between classes for internal use, classes for external use and those for local use only.

Internal Classes

Objects (instances) of internal classes can only be created in the client process.

Internal classes have the following features:

- Access to client session-dependent resources such as files and system variables.
- Can run within the client transaction.
- Can be debugged using the Natural Debugger (local debugging).

External Classes

Objects (instances) of external classes can be created in a different process or on a different machine. If the client process is simultaneously a server for the class, they can also be created in the client process.

External classes have the following features:

- No access to client session-dependent resources such as stacks, files and system variables.
- Do not run within the client transaction.
- Can be used by remote nodes.
- Can be used by various clients using a variety of languages such as Natural, Java, Visual Basic, C/C++, etc.
- Can be debugged with the Natural debugger (remote debugging).

Local Classes

Local classes are classes, which are executed in local execution mode. Natural executes a class locally (within the Natural session) if it is either not registered or if DCOM is not available.

Local classes have the following features:

- Can be used even if DCOM is not available.
- Need not be registered with DCOM.
- Cannot be used from outside the client process.

Globally Unique Identifiers - GUIDs

DCOM uses global unique identifiers (GUIDs) - 128-bit integers that are virtually guaranteed to be unique throughout the world - to identify every interface and every class. This helps to ensure that server components can be located and to prevent clients connecting to an object accidentally.

If a class is to be registered to DCOM, every interface defined in a Natural class and the class itself must be associated with such a globally unique ID.

Once a globally unique ID has been assigned to an interface or a class, the ID must never be changed.

Using the Class Builder

On Windows platforms, Natural provides the Class Builder as the tool to develop Natural classes. The Class Builder automatically assigns a GUID to every class and interface.